In Figure 30J, IFNα14C expressed by mammalian cells is PEGylated using a donor of PEG-sialic acid and α 2,8-sialyltransferase. In Figure 30K, IFNα14C produced by mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the terminal sialic acid residues, and then the molecule is PEGylated using trans-sialidase and PEGylated sialic acid-lactose complex. In Figure 30L, IFNα14C expressed in a mammalian system is sialylated using a donor of sialic acid and α 2,8-sialyltransferase. In Figure 30M, IFNα14C expressed in insect or fungal cells first has N-acetylglucosamine added using an appropriate donor and GnT-I and/or II. The molecule is then contacted with a galactosyltransferase and a galactose donor that is derivatized with a reactive sialic acid via a linker, so that the polypeptide is attached to the reactive sialic acid via the linker and the galactose residue. The polypeptide is then contacted with ST3Gal3 and transferrin, and thus becomes connected with transferrin via the sialic acid residue. In Figure 30N, IFNα14C expressed in either insect or fungal cells is first treated with endoglycanase to trim back the glycosyl groups, and is then contacted with a galactosyltransferase and a galactose donor that is derivatized with a reactive sialic acid via a linker, so that the polypeptide is attached to the reactive sialic acid via the linker and the galactose residue. The molecule is then contacted with ST3Gal3 and transferrin, and thus becomes connected with transferrin via the sialic acid residue.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying Interferon α-2a or 2b (IFNα), as shown in Figures 30O to 30EE. In Figure 30P, IFNα produced in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the glycosyl units, and is then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a PEGylated sialic acid donor. In Figure 30Q, IFNα expressed in insect cells is first galactosylated using an appropriate donor and a galactosyltransferase, and is then PEGylated using ST3Gal1 and a PEGylated sialic acid donor. Figure 30R offers another method for remodeling IFNα expressed in bacteria: PEGylated N-acetylgalactosamine is added to the protein using an appropriate donor and N-acetylgalactosamine transferase. In Figure 30S, IFNα expressed in mammalian cells is modified by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the peptide, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as a hydrazine- or amine- PEG. In Figure 30T, IFNα expressed in bacteria is PEGylated using a modified enzyme Endo-N-acetylgalactosamidase, which functions in a synthetic instead of a hydrolytic

manner, and using a N-acetylgalactosamine donor derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 30U, N-acetylgalactosamine is first added IFNα using an appropriate donor and N-acetylgalactosamine transferase, and then is PEGylated using a sialyltransferase and a PEGylated sialic acid donor. In Figure 30V, IFNα expressed in a mammalian system is first treated with sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues, and is then PEGylated using a suitable donor and ST3Gal1 and/or ST3Gal3. In Figure 30W, IFNα expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues. The polypeptide is then contacted with ST3Gal1 and two reactive sialic acid residues that are connect via a linker, so that the polypeptide is attached to one reactive sialic acid via the linker and the second sialic acid residue. The polypeptide is subsequently contacted with ST3Gal3 and transferrin, and thus becomes connected with transferrin via the sialic acid residue. In Figure 30Y, IFNα expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues, and is then PEGylated using ST3Gal1 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 30Z, IFNα produced by insect cells is PEGylated using a galactosyltransferase and a donor of PEGylated galactose. In Figure 30AA, bacterially expressed IFNα first has N-acetylgalactosamine added using a suitable donor and N-acetylgalactosamine transferase. The protein is then PEGylated using a sialyltransferase and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 30CC, IFNα expressed in bacteria is modified in another procedure: PEGylated N-acetylgalactosamine is added to the protein by N-acetylgalactosamine transferase using a donor of PEGylated N-acetylgalactosamine. In Figure 30DD, IFNα expressed in bacteria is remodeled in yet another scheme. The polypeptide is first contacted with N-acetylgalactosamine transferase and a donor of N-acetylgalactosamine that is derivatized with a reactive sialic acid via a linker, so that IFNα is attached to the reactive sialic acid via the linker and the N-acetylgalactosamine. IFNα is then contacted with ST3Gal3 and asialo-transferrin so that it becomes connected with transferrin via the sialic acid residue. Then, IFNα is capped with sialic acid residues using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. An additional method for modifying bacterially expressed IFNα is disclosed in Figure 30EE, where IFNα is first exposed to NHS-CO-linker-SA-CMP and is then connected to a reactive sialic acid via the linker. It is subsequently conjugated with transferrin using ST3Gal3 and transferrin.

The methods for remodeling INN omega are essentially identical to those presented here for IFN alpha except that the attachment of the glycan to the IFN omega peptide occurs at amino acid residue 101 in SEQ ID NO:75. The nucleotide and amino acid sequences for IFN omega are presented herein as SEQ ID NOS:74 and 75. Methods of making and using IFN omega are found in U.S. Patent No. 4,917,887 and 5,317,089, and in EP Patent No. 0170204-A.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying Interferon β (IFN-β), as shown in Figures 31A to 31S. In Figure 31B, IFN-β expressed in a mammalian system is first treated with sialidase to trim back the terminal sialic acid residues. The protein is then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEGylated sialic acid. Figure 31C is a scheme for modifying IFN-β produced by insect cells. First, N-acetylglucosamine is added to IFN-β using an appropriate donor and GnT-I and/or -II. The protein is then galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase. Finally, IFN-β is PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 31D, IFN-β expressed in yeast is first treated with Endo-H to trim back its glycosyl chains, and is then galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase, and is then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEGylated sialic acid. In Figure 31E, IFN-β produced by mammalian cells is modified by PEGylation using ST3Gal3 and a donor of sialic acid already derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 31F, IFN-β expressed in insect cells first has N-acetylglucosamine added by one or more of GnT-I, II, IV, and V using a N-acetylglucosamine donor, and then is galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase, and is then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 31G, IFN-β expressed in yeast is first treated with mannosidases to trim back the mannosyl units, then has N-acetylglucosamine added using a N-acetylglucosamine donor and one or more of GnT-I, II, IV, and V. The protein is further galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase, and then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a PEG-sialic acid donor. In Figure 31H, mammalian cell expressed IFN-β is modified by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the peptide, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as a hydrazine- or amine- PEG. In Figure 31I, IFN-β expressed in a mammalian system is PEGylated using a donor of PEG-sialic acid and α

2,8-sialyltransferase. In Figure 31J, IFN-β expressed by mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back its terminal sialic acid residues, and then PEGylated using trans-sialidase and a donor of PEGylated sialic acid. In Figure 31K, IFN-β expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back terminal sialic acid residues, then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid, and then sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. In Figure 31L, IFN-β expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase and galactosidase to trim back the glycosyl chains, then galactosylated using a galactose donor and an α-galactosyltransferase, and then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 or a sialyltransferase and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 31M, IFN-β expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the glycosyl units. It is then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid, and is then sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. In Figure 31N, IFN-β expressed in mammalian cells is modified by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the peptide, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as a hydrazine- or amine- PEG. In Figure 31O, IFN-β expressed in mammalian cells is sialylated using a sialic acid donor and α 2,8-sialyltransferase. In Figure 31Q, IFN-β produced by insect cells first has N-acetylglucosamine added using a donor of N-acetylglucosamine and one or more of GnT-I, II, IV, and V, and is further PEGylated using a donor of PEG-galactose and a galactosyltransferase. In Figure 31R, IFN-β expressed in yeast is first treated with endoglycanase to trim back the glycosyl groups, then galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase, and then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 31S, IFN-β expressed in a mammalian system is first contacted with ST3Gal3 and two reactive sialic acid residues connected via a linker, so that the polypeptide is attached to one reactive sialic acid via the linker and the second sialic acid residue. The polypeptide is then contacted with ST3Gal3 and desialylated transferrin, and thus becomes connected with transferrin via the sialic acid residue. Then, IFN-β is further sialylated using a sialic acid donor and ST3Gal3.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying Factor VII or VIIa, as shown in Figures 32 A to 32D. In Figure 32B, Factor VII or VIIa produced by a mammalian system is first treated with sialidase to trim back the terminal

sialic acid residues, and then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEGylated sialic acid. Figure 32C, Factor VII or VIIa expressed by mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the terminal sialic acid residues, and then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEGylated sialic acid. Further, the polypeptide is sialylated with ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. Figure 32D offers another modification scheme for Factor VII or VIIa produced by mammalian cells: the polypeptide is first treated with sialidase and galactosidase to trim back its sialic acid and galactose residues, then galactosylated using a galactosyltransferase and a galactose donor, and then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEGylated sialic acid.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying Factor IX, some examples of which are included in Figures 33A to 33G. In Figure 33B, Factor IX produced by mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the terminal sialic acid residues, and is then PEGylated with ST3Gal3 using a PEG-sialic acid donor. In Figure 33C, Factor IX expressed by mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the terminal sialic acid residues, it is then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a PEG-sialic acid donor, and further sialylated using ST3Gal1 and a sialic acid donor. Another scheme for remodeling mammalian cell produced Factor IX can be found in Figure 33D. The polypeptide is first treated with sialidase to trim back the terminal sialic acid residues, then galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase, further sialylated using a sialic acid donor and ST3Gal3, and then PEGylated using a donor of PEGylated sialic acid and ST3Gal1. In Figure 33E, Factor IX that is expressed in a mammalian system is PEGylated through the process of sialylation catalyzed by ST3Gal3 using a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 33F, Factor IX expressed in mammalian cells is modified by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the peptide, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as a hydrazine- or amine- PEG. Figure 33G provides an additional method of modifying Factor IX. The polypeptide, produced by mammalian cells, is PEGylated using a donor of PEG-sialic acid and α 2,8-sialyltransferase.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modification of Follicle Stimulating Hormone (FSH). Figures 34A to 34J present some examples. In Figure 34B, FSH is expressed in a mammalian system and modified by treatment of sialidase to trim back terminal sialic acid residues, followed by PEGylation using ST3Gal3 and a

donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 34C, FSH expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back terminal sialic acid residues, then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid, and then sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. Figure 34D provides a scheme for modifying FSH expressed in a mammalian system. The polypeptide is treated with sialidase and galactosidase to trim back its sialic acid and galactose residues, then galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase, and then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 34E, FSH expressed in mammalian cells is modified in the following procedure: FSH is first treated with sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues, then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid, and is then sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. Figure 34F offers another example of modifying FSH produced by mammalian cells: The polypeptide is modified by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the peptide, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as a hydrazine- or amine- PEG. In Figure 34G, FSH expressed in a mammalian system is modified in another procedure: the polypeptide is remodeled with addition of sialic acid using a sialic acid donor and an α 2,8-sialyltransferase. In Figure 34H, FSH is expressed in insect cells and modified in the following procedure: N-acetylglucosamine is first added to FSH using an appropriate N-acetylglucosamine donor and one or more of GnT-I, II, IV, and V; FSH is then PEGylated using a donor of PEG-galactose and a galactosyltransferase. Figure 34I depicts a scheme of modifying FSH produced by yeast. According to this scheme, FSH is first treated with endoglycanase to trim back the glycosyl groups, galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase, and is then PEGylated with ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 34J, FSH expressed by mammalian cells is first contacted with ST3Gal3 and two reactive sialic acid residues via a linker, so that the polypeptide is attached to a reactive sialic acid via the linker and a second sialic acid residue. The polypeptide is then contacted with ST3Gal1 and desialylated chorionic gonadotrophin (CG) produced in CHO, and thus becomes connected with CG via the second sialic acid residue. Then, FSH is sialylated using a sialic acid donor and ST3Gal3 and/or ST3Gal1.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying erythropoietin (EPO), Figures 35A to 35AA set forth some examples which are relevant to

the remodeling of both wild-type and mutant EPO peptides. In Figure 35B, EPO expressed in various mammalian systems is remodeled by contacting the expressed protein with a sialidase to remove terminal sialic acid residues. The resulting peptide is contacted with a sialyltransferase and a CMP-sialic acid that is derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 35C, EPO that is expressed in insect cells is remodeled with N-acetylglucosamine, using GnT-I and/or GnT-II. Galactose is then added to the peptide, using galactosyltransferase. PEG group is added to the remodeled peptide by contacting it with a sialyltransferase and a CMP-sialic acid that is derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 35D, EPO that is expressed in a mammalian cell system is remodeled by removing terminal sialic acid moieties via the action of a sialidase. The terminal galactose residues of the N-linked glycosyl units are "capped" with sialic acid, using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. The terminal galactose residues on the O-linked glycan are functionalized with a sialic acid bearing a PEG moiety, using an appropriate sialic acid donor and ST3Gal1. In Figure 35E, EPO that is expressed in a mammalian cell system is remodeled by functionalizing the N-linked glycosyl residues with a PEG-derivatized sialic acid moiety. The peptide is contacted with ST3Gal3 and an appropriately modified sialic acid donor. In Figure 35F, EPO that is expressed in an insect cell system, yeast or fungi, is remodeled by adding at least one N-acetylglucosamine residues by contacting the peptide with a N-acetylglucosamine donor and one or more of GnT-I, GnT-II, and GnT-V. The peptide is then PEGylated by contacting it with a PEGylated galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase. In Figure 35G, EPO that is expressed in an insect cell system, yeast or fungi, is remodeled by the addition of at least one N-acetylglucosamine residues, using an appropriate N-acetylglucosamine donor and one or more of GnT-I, GnT-II, and GnT-V. A galactosidase that is altered to operate in a synthetic, rather than a hydrolytic manner is used to add an activated PEGylated galactose donor to the N-acetylglucosamine residues. In Figure 35H, EPO that is expressed in an insect cell system, yeast or fungi, is remodeled by the addition of at least one terminal N-acetylglucosamine-PEG residue. The peptide is contacted with GnT-I and an appropriate N-acetlyglucosamine donor that is derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 35I, EPO that is expressed in an insect cell system, yeast or fungi, is remodeled by adding one or more terminal galactose-PEG residues. The peptide is contacted with GnT-I and an appropriate N-acetylglucosamine donor that is derivatized with a PEG moiety. The peptide is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and

an appropriate galactose donor that is modified with a PEG moiety. In Figure 35J, EPO expressed in an insect cell system, yeast or fungi, is remodeled by the addition of one more terminal sialic acid-PEG residues. The peptide is contacted with an appropriate N-acetylglucosamine donor and GnT-I. The peptide is further contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor. The peptide is then contacted with ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid donor that is derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 35K, EPO expressed in an insect cell system, yeast or fungi, is remodeled by the addition of terminal sialic acid-PEG residues. The peptide is contacted with an appropriate N-acetylglucosamine donor and one or more of GnT-I, GnT-II, and GnT-V. The peptide is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor. The peptide is further contacted with ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid donor that is derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 35L, EPO expressed in an insect cell system, yeast or fungi, is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal α2,6-sialic acid-PEG residues. The peptide is contacted with an appropriate N-acetylglucosamine donor and one or more of GnT-I, GnT-II, and GnT-V. The peptide is further contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor. The peptide is then contacted with α2,6-sialyltransferase and an appropriately modified sialic acid donor. In Figure 35M, EPO expressed in a mammalian cell system is remodeled by addition of one or more terminal sialic acid-PEG residues. The peptide is contacted with a sialidase to remove terminal sialic acid residues. The peptide is further contacted with a sialyltransferase and an appropriate sialic acid donor. The peptide is further contacted with a sialyltransferase and an appropriate sialic acid donor that is derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 35N, EPO expressed in a mammalian cell system is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal sialic acid-PEG residues. The peptide is contacted with a sialyltransferase and an appropriate sialic acid donor that is derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 35O, EPO expressed in a mammalian cell system is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal α2,8-sialic acid-PEG residues to primarily O-linked glycans. The peptide is contacted with α2,8-sialyltransferase and an appropriate sialic acid donor that is derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 35P, EPO expressed in a mammalian cell is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal α2,8-sialic acid-PEG residues to O-linked and N-linked glycans. The peptide is contacted with α2,8-sialyltransferase and an

appropriate sialic acid donor that is derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 35Q, EPO expressed in yeast or fungi is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal sialic acid-PEG residues. The peptide is contacted with mannosidases to remove terminal mannose residues. Next, the peptide is contacted with GnT-I and an appropriate N-acetylglucosamine donor. The peptide is further contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor. The peptide is then contacted with a sialyltransferase and an appropriate sialic acid donor that is derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 35R, EPO expressed in yeast or fungi is remodeled by the addition of at least one terminal N-acetylglucosamine-PEG residues. The peptide is contacted with mannosidases to remove terminal mannose residue. The peptide is then contacted with GnT-I and an appropriate N-acetylglucosamine donor that is derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 35S, EPO expressed in yeast or fungi is remodeled by the additon of one mor more terminal sialic acid-PEG residues. The peptide is contacted with mannosidase-I to remove α2 mannose residues. The peptide is further contacted with GnT-I and an appropriate N-acetylglucosamine donor. The peptide is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galacose donor. The peptide is then contacted with a sialyltransferase and an appropriate sialic acid donor that is derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 35U, EPO expressed in yeast or fungi is remodeled by addition of one or more galactose-PEG residues. The peptide is contacted with endo-H to trim back glycosyl groups. The peptide is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor that is derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 35V, EPO expressed in yeast or fungi is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal sialic acid-PEG residues. The peptide is contacted with endo-H to trim back glycosyl groups. The peptide is further contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor. The peptide is then contacted with a sialyltransferase and an appropriate sialic acid donor that is derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 35W, EPO expressed in an insect cell system is remodeled by the addition of terminal galactose-PEG residues. The peptide is contacted with mannosidases to remove terminal mannose residues. The peptide is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor that is derivatized with a PEG moeity. In Figure 35Y, a mutant EPO called "novel erythropoiesis-stimulating protein" or NESP, expressed in NSO murine myeloma cells is remodeled by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid

donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the peptide, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as a hydrazine- or amine-PEG. In Figure 35Z, mutant EPO, i.e. NESP, expressed in a mammalian cell system is remodeled by addition of one or more terminal sialic acid-PEG residues. PEG is added to the glycosyl residue on the glycan using a PEG-modified sialic acid and an α 2,8-sialyltransferase. In Figure 35AA, NESP expressed in a mammalian cell system is remodeled by the addition of terminal sialic acid residues. The sialic acid is added to the glycosyl residue using a sialic acid donor and an α2,8-sialyltransferase.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF), as shown in Figures 36A to 36K. In Figure 36B, GM-CSF expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues, and then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 36C, GM-CSF expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues, then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid, and then is further sialylated using a sialic acid donor and ST3Gal1 and/or ST3Gal3. In Figure 36D, GM-CSF expressed in NSO cells is first treated with sialidase and α-galactosidase to trim back the glycosyl groups, then sialylated using a sialic acid donor and ST3Gal3, and is then PEGylated using ST3Gal1 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 36E, GM-CSF expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back sialic acid residues, then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid, and then is further sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. In Figure 36F, GM-CSF expressed in mammalian cells is modified by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the peptide, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as a hydrazine- or amine- PEG. In Figure 36G, GM-CSF expressed in mammalian cells is sialylated using a sialic acid donor and α 2,8-sialyltransferase. In Figure 36I, GM-CSF expressed in insect cells is modified by addition of N-acetylglucosamine using a suitable donor and one or more of GnT-I, II, IV, and V, followed by addition of PEGylated galactose using a suitable donor and a galactosyltransferase. In Figure 36J, yeast expressed GM-CSF is first treated with endoglycanase and/or mannosidase to trim back the glycosyl units, and subsequently PEGylated using a galactosyltransferase and a donor of PEG-galactose. In

Figure 36K, GM-CSF expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back sialic acid residues, and is subsequently sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. The polypeptide is then contacted with ST3Gal1 and two reactive sialic acid residues connected via a linker, so that the polypeptide is attached to one reactive sialic acid via the linker and second sialic acid residue. The polypeptide is further contacted with ST3Gal3 and transferrin, and thus becomes connected with transferrin.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modification of Interferon gamma (IFNγ). Figures 37A to 37N contain some examples. In Figure 37B, IFNγ expressed in a variety of mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back terminal sialic acid residues, and is subsequently PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 37C, IFNγ expressed in a mammalian system is first treated with sialidase to trim back terminal sialic acid residues. The polypeptide is then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid, and is further sialylated with ST3Gal3 and a donor of sialic acid. In Figure 37D, mammalian cell expressed IFNγ is first treated with sialidase and α-galactosidase to trim back sialic acid and galactose residues. The polypeptide is then galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase. Then, IFNγ is PEGylated using a donor of PEG-sialic acid and ST3Gal3. In Figure 37E, IFNγ that is expressed in a mammalian system is first treated with sialidase to trim back terminal sialic acid residues. The polypeptide is then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid, and is further sialylated with ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. Figure 37F describes another method for modifying IFNγ expressed in a mammalian system. The protein is modified by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the peptide, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as a hydrazine- or amine- PEG. In Figure 37G, IFNγ expressed in mammalian cells is remodeled by addition of sialic acid using a sialic acid donor and an α 2,8-sialyltransferase. In Figure 37I, IFNγ expressed in insect or fungal cells is modified by addition of N-acetylglucosamine using an appropriate donor and one or more of GnT-I, II, IV, and V. The protein is further modified by addition of PEG moieties using a donor of PEGylated galactose and a galactosyltransferase. Figure 37J offers a method for modifying IFNγ expressed in yeast. The polypeptide is first treated with endoglycanase to trim back the saccharide chains, and then galactosylated using a galactose

donor and a galactosyltransferase. Then, IFNγ is PEGylated using a donor of PEGylated sialic acid and ST3Gal3. In Figure 37K, IFNγ produced by mammalian cells is modified as follows: the polypeptide is first contacted with ST3Gal3 and a donor of sialic acid that is derivatized with a reactive galactose via a linker, so that the polypeptide is attached to the reactive galactose via the linker and sialic acid residue. The polypeptide is then contacted with a galactosyltransferase and transferrin pre-treated with endoglycanase, and thus becomes connected with transferrin via the galactose residue. In the scheme illustrated by Figure 37L, IFNγ, which is expressed in a mammalian system, is modified via the action of ST3Gal3: PEGylated sialic acid is transferred from a suitable donor to IFNγ. Figure 37M is an example of modifying IFNγ expressed in insect or fungal cells, where PEGylation of the polypeptide is achieved by transferring PEGylated N-acetylglucosamine from a donor to IFNγ using GnT-I and/or II. In Figure 37N, IFNγ expressed in a mammalian system is remodeled with addition of PEGylated sialic acid using a suitable donor and an α 2,8-sialyltransferase.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying α_1 anti-trypsin (α1-protease inhibitor). Some such examples can be found in Figures 38A to 38N. In Figure 38B, α_1 anti-trypsin expressed in a variety of mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back sialic acid residues. PEGylated sialic acid residues are then added using an appropriate donor, such as CMP-SA-PEG, and a sialyltransferase, such as ST3Gal3. Figure 38C demonstrates another scheme of α_1 anti-trypsin modification. α_1 anti-trypsin expressed in a mammalian system is first treated with sialidase to trim back sialic acid residues. Sialic acid residues derivatized with PEG are then added using an appropriate donor and a sialyltransferase, such as ST3Gal3. Subsequently, the molecule is further modified by the addition of sialic acid residues using a sialic acid donor and ST3Gal3. Optionally, mammalian cell expressed α_1 anti-trypsin is first treated with sialidase and α-galactosidase to trim back terminal sialic acid and α-linkage galactose residues. The polypeptide is then galactosylated using galactosyltransferase and a suitable galactose donor. Further, sialic acid derivatized with PEG is added by the action of ST3Gal3 using a PEGylated sialic acid donor. In Figure 38D, α_1 anti-trypsin expressed in a mammalian system first has the terminal sialic acid residues trimmed back using sialidase. PEG is then added to N-linked glycosyl residues via the action of ST3Gal3, which mediates the transfer of PEGylated sialic acid from a donor, such as CMP-SA-PEG, to α_1 anti-trypsin. More sialic

acid residues are subsequently attached using a sialic acid donor and ST3Gal3. Figure 38E illustrates another process through which α_1 anti-trypsin is remodeled. α_1 anti-trypsin expressed in mammalian cells is modified by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the peptide, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as a hydrazine- or amine- PEG. In Figure 38F, yet another method of α_1 anti-trypsin modification is disclosed. α_1 anti-trypsin obtained from a mammalian expression system is remodeled with addition of sialic acid using a sialic acid donor and an α 2,8-sialyltransferase. In Figure 38H, α_1 anti-trypsin is expressed in insect or yeast cells, and remodeled by the addition of terminal N-acetylglucosamine residues by way of contacting the polypeptide with UDP-N-acetylglucosamine and one or more of GnT-I, II, IV, or V. Then, the polypeptide is modified with PEG moieties using a donor of PEGylated galactose and a galactosyltransferase. In Figure 38I, α_1 anti-trypsin expressed in yeast cells is treated first with endoglycanase to trim back glycosyl chains. It is then galactosylated with a galactosyltransferase and a galactose donor. Then, the polypeptide is PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 38J, α_1 anti-trypsin is expressed in a mammalian system. The polypeptide is first contacted with ST3Gal3 and a donor of sialic acid that is derivatized with a reactive galactose via a linker, so that the polypeptide is attached to the reactive galactose via the linker and sialic acid residue. The polypeptide is then contacted with a galactosyltransferase and transferrin pre-treated with endoglycanase, and thus becomes connected with transferrin via the galactose residue. In Figure 38L, α_1 anti-trypsin expressed in yeast is first treated with endoglycanase to trim back its glycosyl groups. The protein is then PEGylated using a galactosyltransferase and a donor of galactose with a PEG moiety. In Figure 38M, α_1 anti-trypsin expressed in plant cells is treated with hexosaminidase, mannosidase, and xylosidase to trim back its glycosyl chains, and subsequently modified with N-acetylglucosamine derivatized with a PEG moiety, using N-acetylglucosamine transferase and a suitable donor. In Figure 38N, α_1 anti-trypsin expressed in mammalian cells is modified by adding PEGylated sialic acid residues using ST3Gal3 and a donor of sialic acid derivatized with PEG.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying glucocerebrosidase (β-glucosidase, Cerezyme™ or Ceredase™), as shown in Figures 39A to

39K. In Figure 39B, Cerezyme™ expressed in a mammalian system is first treated with sialidase to trim back terminal sialic acid residues, and is then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 39C, Cerezyme™ expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues, then has mannose-6-phosphate group attached using ST3Gal3 and a reactive sialic acid derivatized with mannose-6-phosphate, and then is sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. Optionally, NSO cell expressed Cerezyme™ is first treated with sialidase and galactosidase to trim back the glycosyl groups, and is then galactosylated using a galactose donor and an α-galactosyltransferase. Then, mannose-6-phosphate moiety is added to the molecule using ST3Gal3 and a reactive sialic acid derivatized with mannose-6-phosphate. In Figure 39D, Cerezyme™ expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues, it is then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid, and is then sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. In Figure 39E, Cerezyme™ expressed in mammalian cells is modified by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the peptide, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as one or more mannose-6-phosphate groups. In Figure 39F, Cerezyme™ expressed in mammalian cells is sialylated using a sialic acid donor and α 2,8-sialyltransferase. In Figure 39H, Cerezyme™ expressed in insect cells first has N-acetylglucosamine added using a suitable donor and one or more of GnT-I, II, IV, and V, and then is PEGylated using a galactosyltransferase and a donor of PEG-galactose. In Figure 39I, Cerezyme™ expressed in yeast is first treated with endoglycanase to trim back the glycosyl groups, then galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase, and then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 39JK, Cerezyme™ expressed in mammalian cells is first contacted with ST3Gal3 and two reactive sialic acid residues connected via a linker, so that the polypeptide is attached to one reactive sialic acid via the linker and the second sialic acid residue. The polypeptide is then contacted with ST3Gal3 and desialylated transferrin, and thus becomes connected with transferrin. Then, the polypeptide is sialylated using a sialic acid donor and ST3Gal3.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying Tissue-Type Plasminogen Activator (TPA) and its mutant. Several specific modification

schemes are presented in Figures 40A to 40W. Figure 40B illustrates one modification procedure: after TPA is expressed by mammalian cells, it is treated with one or more of mannosidase(s) and sialidase to trim back mannosyl and/or sialic acid residues. Terminal N-acetylglucosamine is then added by contacting the polypeptide with a suitable donor of N-acetylglucosamine and one or more of GnT-I, II, IV, and V. TPA is further galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase. Then, PEG is attached to the molecule by way of sialylation catalyzed by ST3Gal3 and using a donor of sialic acid derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 40C, TPA is expressed in insect or fungal cells. The modification includes the steps of addition of N-acetylglucosamine using an appropriate donor of N-acetylglucosamine and GnT-I and/or II; galactosylation using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase; and attachment of PEG by way of sialylation using ST3Gal3 and a donor of sialic acid derivatized with PEG. In Figure 40D, TPA is expressed in yeast and subsequently treated with endoglycanase to trim back the saccharide chains. The polypeptide is further PEGylated via the action of a galactosyltransferase, which catalyzes the transfer of a PEG-galactose from a donor to TPA. In Figure 40E, TPA is expressed in insect or yeast cells. The polypeptide is then treated with α- and β- mannosidases to trim back terminal mannosyl residues. Further, PEG moieties are attached to the molecule via transfer of PEG-galactose from a suitable donor to TPA, which is mediated by a galactosyltransferase. Figure 40F provides a different method for modification of TPA obtained from an insect or yeast system: the polypeptide is remodeled by addition of N-acetylglucosamine using a donor of N-acetylglucosamine and GnT-I and/or II, followed by PEGylation using a galactosyltransferase and a donor of PEGylated galactose. Figure 40G offers another scheme for remodeling TPA expressed in insect or yeast cells. Terminal N-acetylglucosamine is added using a donor of N-acetylglucosamine and GnT-I and/or II. A galactosidase that is modified to operate in a synthetic, rather than a hydrolytic manner, is utilized to add PEGylated galactose from a proper donor to the N-acetylglucosamine residues. In Figure 40I, TPA expressed in a mammalian system is first treated with sialidase and galactosidase to trim back sialic acid and galactose residues. The polypeptide is further modified by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the peptide, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as a hydrazine- or amine- PEG. In Figure 40J, TPA, which is

expressed in a mammalian system, is remodeled following this scheme: first, the polypeptide is treated with α- and β- mannosidases to trim back the terminal mannosyl residues; sialic acid residues are then attached to terminal galactosyl residues using a sialic acid donor and ST3Gal3; further, TPA is PEGylated via the transfer of PEGylated galactose from a donor to a N-acetylglucosaminyl residue catalyzed by a galactosyltransferase. In Figure 40K, TPA is expressed in a plant system. The modification procedure in this example is as follows: TPA is first treated with hexosaminidase, mannosidase, and xylosidase to trim back its glycosyl groups; PEGylated N-acetylglucosamine is then added to TPA using a proper donor and N-acetylglucosamine transferase. In Figure 40M, a TPA mutant (TNK TPA), expressed in mammalian cells, is remodeled. Terminal sialic acid residues are first trimmed back using sialidase; ST3Gal3 is then used to transfer PEGylated sialic acid from a donor to TNK TPA, such that the polypeptide is PEGylated. In Figure 40N, TNK TPA expressed in a mammalian system is first treated with sialidase to trim back terminal sialic acid residues. The protein is then PEGylated using CMP-SA-PEG as a donor and ST3Gal3, and further sialylated using a sialic acid donor and ST3Gal3. In Figure 40O, NSO cell expressed TNK TPA is first treated with sialidase and α-galactosidase to trim back terminal sialic acid and galactose residues. TNK TPA is then galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase. The last step in this remodeling scheme is transfer of sialic acid derivatized with PEG moiety from a donor to TNK TPA using a sialyltransferase such as ST3Gal3. In Figure 40Q, TNK TPA is expressed in a mammalian system and is first treated with sialidase to trim back terminal sialic acid residues. The protein is then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEGylated sialic acid. Then, the protein is sialylated using a sialic acid donor and ST3Gal3. In Figure 40R, TNK TPA expressed in a mammalian system is modified by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the peptide, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as a hydrazine- or amine- PEG. In Figure 40S, TNK TPA expressed in mammalian cells is modified via a different method: the polypeptide is remodeled with addition of sialic acid using a sialic acid donor and α 2,8-sialyltransferase. In Figure 40U, TNK TPA expressed in insect cells is remodeled by addition of N-acetylglucosamine using an appropriate donor and one or more of GnT-I, II, IV, and V. The protein is further modified by addition of PEG moieties using a donor of

PEGylated galactose and a galactosyltransferase. In Figure 40V, TNK TPA is expressed in yeast. The polypeptide is first treated with endoglycanase to trim back its glycosyl chains and then PEGylated using a galactose donor derivatized with PEG and a galactosyltransferase. In Figure 40W, TNK TPA is produced in a mammalian system. The polypeptide is first contacted with ST3Gal3 and a donor of sialic acid that is derivatized with a reactive galactose via a linker, so that the polypeptide is attached to the reactive galactose via the linker and sialic acid residue. The polypeptide is then contacted with a galactosyltransferase and anti-TNF IG chimera produced in CHO, and thus becomes connected with the chimera via the galactose residue.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying Interleukin-2 (IL-2). Figures 41A to 41G provide some examples. Figure 41B provides a two-step modification scheme: IL-2 produced by mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back its terminal sialic acid residues, and is then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEGylated sialic acid. In Figure 41C, insect cell expressed IL-2 is modified first by galactosylation using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase. Subsequently, IL-2 is PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEGylated sialic acid. In Figure 41D, IL-2 expressed in bacteria is modified with N-acetylgalactosamine using a proper donor and N-acetylgalactosamine transferase, followed by a step of PEGylation with a PEG-sialic acid donor and a sialyltransferase. Figure 41E offers another scheme of modifying IL-2 produced by a mammalian system. The polypeptide is modified by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the peptide, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as a hydrazine- or amine- PEG. Figure 41F illustrates an example of remodeling IL-2 expressed by *E. coli*. The polypeptide is PEGylated using a reactive N-acetylgalactosamine complex derivatized with a PEG group and an enzyme that is modified so that it functions as a synthetic enzyme rather than a hydrolytic one. In Figure 41G, IL-2 expressed by bacteria is modified by addition of PEGylated N-acetylgalactosamine using a proper donor and N-acetylgalactosamine transferase.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying Factor VIII, as shown in Figures 42A to 42N. In Figure 42B, Factor VIII expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues, and is then

PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 42C, Factor VIII expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues, then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a proper donor, and is then further sialylated using ST3Gal1 and a sialic acid donor.

In Figure 42E, mammalian cell produced Factor VIII is modified by the single step of PEGylation, using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEGylated sialic acid. Figure 42F offers another example of modification of Factor VIII that is expressed by mammalian cells. The protein is PEGylated using ST3Gal1 and a donor of PEGylated sialic acid. In Figure 42G, mammalian cell expressed Factor VIII is remodeled following another scheme: it is PEGylated using α 2,8-sialyltransferase and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 42 I, Factor VIII produce by mammalian cells is modified by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the peptide, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as a hydrazine- or amine- PEG. In Figure 42J, Factor VIII expressed by mammalian cells is first treated with Endo-H to trim back glycosyl groups. It is then PEGylated using a galactosyltransferase and a donor of PEG-galactose. In Figure 42K, Factor VIII expressed in a mammalian system is first sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor, then treated with Endo-H to trim back the glycosyl groups, and then PEGylated with a galactosyltransferase and a donor of PEG-galactose. In Figure 42L, Factor VIII expressed in a mammalian system is first treated with mannosidases to trim back terminal mannosyl residues, then has an N-acetylglucosamine group added using a suitable donor and GnT-I and/or II, and then is PEGylated using a galactosyltransferase and a donor of PEG-galactose. In Figure 42M, Factor VIII expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with mannosidases to trim back mannosyl units, then has N-acetylglucosamine group added using N-acetylglucosamine transferase and a suitable donor. It is further galactosylated using a galactosyltransferase and a galactose donor, and then sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor.. In Figure 42N, Factor VIII is produced by mammalian cells and modified as follows: it is first treated with mannosidases to trim back the terminal mannosyl groups. A PEGylated N-acetylglucosamine group is then added using GnT-I and a suitable donor of PEGylated N-acetylglucosamine.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying urokinase, as shown in Figures 43A to 43M. In Figure 43B, urokinase expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back sialic acid residues, and is then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEGylated sialic acid. In Figure 43C, urokinase expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back sialic acid residues, then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEGylated sialic acid, and then sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. Optionally, urokinase expressed in a mammalian system is first treated with sialidase and galactosidase to trim back glycosyl chains, then galactosylated using a galactose donor and an α-galactosyltransferase, and then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 or sialyltransferase and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 43D, urokinase expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back sialic acid residues, then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid, and then further sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. In Figure 43E, urokinase expressed in mammalian cells is modified by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the peptide, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as a hydrazine- or amine- PEG. In Figure 43F, urokinase expressed in mammalian cells is sialylated using a sialic acid donor and α 2,8-sialyltransferase. In Figure 43H, urokinase expressed in insect cells is modified in the following steps: first, N-acetylglucosamine is added to the polypeptide using a suitable donor of N-acetylglucosamine and one or more of GnT-I, II, IV, and V; then PEGylated galactose is added, using a galactosyltransferase and a donor of PEG-galactose. In Figure 43I, urokinase expressed in yeast is first treated with endoglycanase to trim back glycosyl groups, then galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase, and then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 43J, urokinase expressed in mammalian cells is first contacted with ST3Gal3 and two reactive sialic acid residues that are connected via a linker, so that the polypeptide is attached to one reactive sialic acid via the linker and second sialic acid residue. The polypeptide is then contacted with ST3Gal1 and desialylated urokinase produced in mammalian cells, and thus becomes connected with a second molecule of urokinase. Then, the whole molecule is further sialylated using a sialic donor and ST3Gal1 and/or ST3Gal3. In Figure 43K, isolated urokinase is first treated with sulfohydrolase to remove sulfate

groups, and is then PEGylated using a sialyltransferase and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 43LM, isolated urokinase is first treated with sulfohydrolase and hexosaminidase to remove sulfate groups and hexosamine groups, and then PEGylated using a galactosyltransferase and a donor of PEG-galactose.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying DNase I, as shown in Figures 44A to 44J. In Figure 44B, DNase I is expressed in a mammalian system and modified in the following steps: first, the protein is treated with sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues; then the protein is PEGylated with ST3Gal3 using a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 44C, DNase I expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues, then PEGylated with ST3Gal3 using a PEG-sialic acid donor, and is then sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. Optionally, DNase I expressed in a mammalian system is first exposed to sialidase and galactosidase to trim back the glycosyl groups, then galactosylated using a galactose donor and an α-galactosyltransferase, and then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 or sialyltransferase and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 44D, DNase I expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues, then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a PEG-sialic acid donor, and then sialylated with ST3Gal3 using a sialic acid donor. In Figure 44E, DNase I expressed in mammalian cells is modified by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the peptide, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as a hydrazine- or amine- PEG. In Figure 44F, DNase I expressed in mammalian cells is sialylated using a sialic acid donor and α 2,8-sialyltransferase. In Figure 44H, DNase I expressed in insect cells first has N-acetylglucosamine added using a suitable donor and one or more of GnT-I, II, IV, and V. The protein is then PEGylated using a galactosyltransferase and a donor of PEG-galactose. In Figure 44I, DNase I expressed in yeast is first treated with endoglycanase to trim back the glycosyl units, then galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase, and then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 44JK, DNase I expressed in mammalian cells is first contacted with ST3Gal3 and two reactive sialic acid residues connected via a linker, so that the polypeptide is attached to one reactive sialic acid via the linker and the second sialic acid residue. The polypeptide is then contacted with

ST3Gal1 and desialylated α-1-protease inhibitor, and thus becomes connected with the inhibitor via the sialic acid residue. Then, the polypeptide is further sialylated using a suitable donor and ST3Gal1 and/or ST3Gal3.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying insulin that is mutated to contain an N-glycosylation site, as shown in Figures 45A to 45L. In Figure 45B, insulin expressed in a mammalian system is first treated with sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues, and then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a PEG-sialic acid donor. In Figure 45C, insulin expressed in insect cells is modified by addition of PEGylated N-acetylglucosamine using an appropriate donor and GnT-I and/or II. In Figure 45D, insulin expressed in yeast is first treated with Endo-H to trim back the glycosyl groups, and then PEGylated using a galactosyltransferase and a donor of PEG-galactose. In Figure 45F, insulin expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues and then PEGylated using ST3Gal1 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 45G, insulin expressed in insect cells is modified by means of addition of PEGylated galactose using a suitable donor and a galactosyltransferase. In Figure 45H, insulin expressed in bacteria first has N-acetylgalactosamine added using a proper donor and N-acetylgalactosamine transferase. The polypeptide is then PEGylated using a sialyltransferase and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 45J, insulin expressed in bacteria is modified through a different method: PEGylated N-acetylgalactosamine is added to the protein using a suitable donor and N-acetylgalactosamine transferase. In Figure 45K, insulin expressed in bacteria is modified following another scheme: the polypeptide is first contacted with N-acetylgalactosamine transferase and a reactive N-acetylgalactosamine that is derivatized with a reactive sialic acid via a linker, so that the polypeptide is attached to the reactive sialic acid via the linker and N-acetylgalactosamine. The polypeptide is then contacted with ST3Gal3 and asialo-transferrin, and therefore becomes connected with transferrin. Then, the polypeptide is sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. In Figure 45L, insulin expressed in bacteria is modified using yet another method: the polypeptide is first exposed to NHS-CO-linker-SA-CMP and becomes connected to the reactive sialic acid residue via the linker. The polypeptide is then conjugated to transferrin using ST3Gal3 and asialo-transferrin. Then, the polypeptide is further sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying Hepatitis B antigen (M antigen-preS2 and S), as shown in Figures 46A to 46K. In Figure 46B, M-antigen is expressed in a mammalian system and modified by initial treatment of sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues and subsequent conjugation with lipid A, using ST3Gal3 and a reactive sialic acid linked to lipid A via a linker. In Figure 46C, M-antigen expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the terminal sialic acid residues, then conjugated with tetanus toxin via a linker using ST3Gal1 and a reactive sialic acid residue linked to the toxin via the linker, and then sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. In Figure 46D, M-antigen expressed in a mammalian system is first treated with a galactosidase to trim back galactosyl residues, and then sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. The polypeptide then has sialic acid derivatized with KLH added using ST3Gal1 and a suitable donor. In Figure 46E, yeast expressed M-antigen is first treated with a mannosidase to trim back the mannosyl residues, and then conjugated to a diphtheria toxin using GnT-I and a donor of N-acetylglucosamine linked to the diphtheria toxin. In Figure 46F, mammalian cell expressed M-antigen is modified by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the peptide, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as a hydrazine- or amine- PEG. In Figure 46G, M-antigen obtained from a mammalian system is remodeled by sialylation using a sialic acid donor and poly α 2,8-sialyltransferase. In Figure 46I, M-antigen expressed in insect cells is conjugated to a Neisseria protein by using GnT-II and a suitable donor of N-acetylglucosamine linked to the Neisseria protein. In Figure 46J, yeast expressed M-antigen is first treated with endoglycanase to trim back its glycosyl chains, and then conjugated to a Neisseria protein using a galactosyltransferase and a proper donor of galactose linked to the Neisseria protein. Figure 46K is another example of modification of M-antigen expressed in yeast. The polypeptide is first treated with mannosidases to trim back terminal mannosyl residues, and then has N-acetylglucosamine added using GnT-I and/or II. Subsequently, the polypeptide is galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase, and then capped with sialic acid residues using a sialyltransferase and a sialic acid donor.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying human growth hormone (N, V, and variants thereof), as shown in Figures 47A to 47K. In

Figure 47B, human growth hormone either mutated to contain a N-linked site, or a naturally occurring isoform that has an N-linked side (i.e., the placental enzyme) produced by mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back terminal sialic acid residues and subsequently PEGylated with ST3Gal3 and using a donor of PEGylated sialic acid. In Figure 47C, human growth hormone expressed in insect cells is modified by addition of PEGylated N-acetylglucosamine using GnT-I and/or II and a proper donor of PEGylated N-acetylglucosamine. In Figure 47D, human growth hormone is expressed in yeast, treated with Endo-H to trim back glycosyl groups, and further PEGylated with a galactosyltransferase using a donor of PEGylated galactose. In Figure 47F, human growth hormone-mucin fusion protein expressed in a mammalian system is modified by initial treatment of sialidase to trim back sialic acid residues and subsequent PEGylation using a donor of PEG-sialic acid and ST3Gal1. In Figure 47G, human growth hormone-mucin fusion protein expressed in insect cells is remodeled by PEGylation with a galactosyltransferase and using a donor of PEGylated galactose. In Figure 47H, human growth hormone-mucin fusion protein is produced in bacteria. N-acetylgalactosamine is first added to the fusion protein by the action of N-acetylgalactosamine transferase using a donor of N-acetylgalactosamine, followed by PEGylation of the fusion protein using a donor of PEG-sialic acid and a sialyltransferase. Figure 47I describes another scheme of modifying bacterially expressed human growth hormone-mucin fusion protein: the fusion protein is PEGylated through the action of N-acetylgalactosamine transferase using a donor of PEGylated N-acetylgalactosamine. Figure 47J provides a further remodeling scheme for human growth hormone-mucin fusion protein. The fusion protein is first contacted with N-acetylgalactosamine transferase and a donor of N-acetylgalactosamine that is derivatized with a reactive sialic acid via a linker, so that the fusion protein is attached to the reactive sialic acid via the linker and N-acetylgalactosamine. The fusion protein is then contacted with a sialyltransferase and asialo-transferrin, and thus becomes connected with transferrin via the sialic acid residue. Then, the fusion protein is capped with sialic acid residues using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor. In Figure 47K, yet another scheme is given for modification of human growth hormone(N) produced in bacteria. The polypeptide is first contacted with NHS-CO-linker-SA-CMP and becomes coupled with the reactive sialic acid through the linker. The polypeptide is then contacted with ST3Gal3 and asialo-transferrin

and becomes linked to transferrin via the sialic acid residue. Then, the polypeptide is sialylated using ST3Gal3 and a sialic acid donor.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for remodeling TNF receptor IgG fusion protein (TNFR-IgG, or Enbrel™), as shown in Figures 48A to 48G. Figure 48B illustrates a modification procedure in which TNFR-IgG, expressed in a mammalian system is first sialylated with a sialic acid donor and a sialyltransferase, ST3Gal1; the fusion protein is then galactosylated with a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase; then, the fusion protein is PEGylated via the action of ST3Gal3 and a donor of sialic acid derivatized with PEG. In Figure 48C, TNFR-IgG expressed in mammalian cells is initially treated with sialidase to trim back sialic acid residues. PEG moieties are subsequently attached to TNFR-IgG by way of transferring PEGylated sialic acid from a donor to the fusion protein in a reaction catalyzed by ST3Gal1. In Figure 48D, TNFR-IgG is expressed in a mammalian system and modified by addition of PEG through the galactosylation process, which is mediated by a galactosyltransferase using a PEG-galactose donor. In Figure 48E, TNFR-IgG is expressed in a mammalian system. The first step in remodeling of the fusion protein is adding O-linked sialic acid residues using a sialic acid donor and a sialyltransferase, ST3Gal1. Subsequently, PEGylated galactose is added to the fusion protein using a galactosyltransferase and a suitable donor of galactose with a PEG moiety. In Figure 48F, TNFR-IgG expressed in mammalian cells is modified first by capping appropriate terminal residues with a sialic acid donor that is modified with levulinic acid, adding a reactive ketone to the sialic acid donor. After addition to a glycosyl residue of the fusion protein, the ketone is derivatized with a moiety such as a hydrazine- or amine- PEG. In Figure 48G, TNFR-IgG expressed in mammalian cells is remodeled by 2,8-sialyltransferase, which catalyzes the reaction in which PEGylated sialic acid is transferred to the fusion protein from a donor of sialic acid with a PEG moiety.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for generating Herceptin™ conjugates, as shown in Figures 49A to 49D. In Figure 49B, Herceptin™ is expressed in a mammalian system and is first galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase. Herceptin™ is then conjugated with a toxin via a sialic acid through the action of ST3Gal3 using a reactive sialic acid-toxin complex. In Figure 49C, Herceptin™ produced in either mammalian cells or fungi is conjugated to a toxin through the process of

galactosylation, using a galactosyltransferase and a reactive galactose-toxin complex. Figure 49D contains another scheme of making Herceptin™ conjugates: Herceptin™ produced in fungi is first treated with Endo-H to trim back glycosyl groups, then galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase, and then conjugated with a radioisotope by way of sialylation, by using ST3Gal3 and a reactive sialic acid-radioisotope complex. Alternatively, the reactive sialic acid moiety may have attached only the chelating moiety can then be loaded with radioisotope at a subsequent stage.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for making Synagis™ conjugates, as shown in Figures 50A to 50D. In Figure 50B, Synagis™ expressed in mammalian cells is first galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase, and then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 50C, Synagis™ expressed in mammalian or fungal cells is PEGylated using a galactosyltransferase and a donor of PEG-galactose. In Figure 50D, Synagis™ expressed in first treated with Endo-H to trim back the glycosyl groups, then galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase, and is then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for generating Remicade™ conjugates, as shown in Figures 51A to 51D. In Figure 51B, Remicade™ expressed in a mammalian system is first galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase, and then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 51C, Remicade™ expressed in a mammalian system is modified by addition of PEGylated galactose using a suitable donor and a galactosyltransferase. In Figure 51D, Remicade™ expressed in fungi is first treated with Endo-H to trim back the glycosyl chains, then galactosylated using a galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase, and then conjugated to a radioisotope using ST3Gal3 and a reactive sialic acid derivatized with the radioisotope.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying Reopro, which is mutated to contain an N glycosylation site. Figures 52A to 52L contain such examples. In Figure 52B, Reopro expressed in a mammalian system is first treated with sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues, and then PEGylated using ST3Gal3 and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 52C, Reopro expressed in insect cells is modified by addition of PEGylated N-acetylglucosamine using an appropriate donor and GnT-I and/or II. In Figure 52D, Reopro expressed in yeast is first treated with Endo-H to trim back the glycosyl

groups. Subsequently, the protein is PEGylated using a galactosyltransferase and a donor of PEG-galactose. In Figure 52F, Reopro expressed in mammalian cells is first treated with sialidase to trim back the sialic acid residues and then PEGylated with ST3Gal1 using a donor of PEGylated sialic acid. In Figure 52G, Reopro expressed in insect cells is modified by PEGylation using a galactosyltransferase and a donor of PEG-galactose. In Figure 52H, Reopro expressed in bacterial first has N-acetylgalactosamine added using N-acetylgalactosamine transferase and a suitable donor. The protein is then PEGylated using a sialyltransferase and a donor of PEG-sialic acid. In Figure 52J, Reopro expressed in bacteria is modified in a different scheme: it is PEGylated via the action of N-acetylgalactosamine transferase, using a donor of PEGylated N-acetylgalactosamine. In Figure 52K, bacterially expressed Reopro is modified in yet another method: first, the polypeptide is contacted with N-acetylgalactosamine transferase and a donor of N-acetylgalactosamine that is derivatized with a reactive sialic acid via a linker, so that the polypeptide is attached to the reactive sialic acid via the linker and N-acetylgalactosamine. The polypeptide is then contacted with ST3Gal3 and asialo-transferrin and thus becomes connected with transferrin via the sialic acid residue. Then, the polypeptide is capped with sialic acid residues using a proper donor and ST3Gal3. Figure 52L offers an additional scheme of modifying bacterially expressed Reopro. The polypeptide is first exposed to NHS-CO-linker-SA-CMP and becomes connected with the reactive sialic acid through the linker. The polypeptide is then contacted with ST3Gal3 and asialo-transferrin and thus becomes connected with transferrin via the sialic acid residue. Then, the polypeptide is capped with sialic acid residues using a proper donor and ST3Gal3.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for producing Rituxan™ conjugates. Figures 53A to 53G presents some examples. In Figure 53B, Rituxan™ expressed in various mammalian systems is first galactosylated using a proper galactose donor and a galactosyltransferase. The peptide is then functionalized with a sialic acid derivatized with a toxin moiety, using a sialic acid donor and ST3Gal3. In Figure 53C, Rituxan™ expressed in mammalian cells or fungal cells is galactosylated using a galactosyltransferase and a galactose donor, which provides the peptide galactose containing a drug moiety. Figure 53D provides another example of remodeling Rituxan™ expressed in a fungal system. The polypeptide's glycosyl groups are first trimmed back using Endo-H.

Galactose is then added using a galactosyltransferase and a galactose donor. Subsequently, a radioisotope is conjugated to the molecule through a radioisotope-complexed sialic acid donor and a sialyltransferase, ST3Gal3. In Figure 53F, Rituxan™ is expressed in a mammalian system and first galactosylated using a galactosyltransferase and a proper galactose donor; sialic acid with a PEG moiety is then attached to the molecule using ST3Gal3 and a PEGylated sialic acid donor. As shown in Figure 53G, Rituxan™ expressed in fungi, yeast, or mammalian cells can also be modified in the following process: first, the polypeptide is treated with α- and β- mannosidases to remove terminal mannosyl residues; GlcNAc is then attached to the molecule using GnT-I, II and a GlcNAc donor, radioisotope is then attached by way of galactosylation using a galactosyltransferase and a donor of galactose that is coupled to a chelating moiety capable of binding a radioisotope.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying anti-thrombin III (AT III). Figures 54A to 54O present some examples. In Figure 54B, anti-thrombin III expressed in various mammalian systems is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal sialic acid-PEG moieties. The AT III molecule is first contacted with sialidase to remove terminal sialic acid moieties. Then, the molecule is contacted with a sialyltransferase and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 54C, AT III expressed in various mammalian systems is remodeled by the addition of sialic acid-PEG moieties. The AT III molecule is contacted with sialidase to remove terminal sialic acid moieties. The molecule is then contacted with a ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been derivatized with a PEG moiety at 1.2 mol eq. The molecule is then contacted with a ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid donor to cap remaining terminal galactose moieties. In Figure 54D, AT III is expressed in NSO murine myeloma cells is remodeled to have complex glycan molecules with terminal sialic acid-PEG moieties. The AT III molecule is contacted with sialidase and α-galactosidase to remove terminal sialic acid and galactose moieties. The molecule is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriated galactose donor. The molecule is then contacted with a ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 54E, AT III expressed in various mammalian systems is remodeled to have nearly complete terminal sialic acid-PEG moieties. The AT III molecule is contacted with sialidase to remove terminal sialic acid moieties. The molecule is then contacted with a

ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been derivatized with a PEG moiety at 16 mol eq. The molecule is then contacted with ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid donor to cap remaining terminal galactose moieties. In Figure 54F, AT III expressed in various mammalian systems is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal sialic acid PEG moieties. The AT III molecule is contacted with ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been derivatized with a levulinate moiety. The molecule is then contacted with hydrazine-PEG. In Figure 54G, AT III expressed in various mammalian systems is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal poly-α2,8-linked sialic acid moieties. The AT III molecule is contacted with poly-α2,8-sialyltransferase and an appropriate sialic acid donor. In Figure 54I, AT III expressed in insect, yeast or fungi cells is remodeled by the addition of branching N- N-acetylglucosamine -PEG moieties. The AT III molecule is contacted with GnT-I and an appropriate N-acetylglucosamine donor that has been derivatized with PEG. In Figure 54J, AT III expressed in yeast is remodeled by removing high mannose glycan structures and the addition of terminal sialic acid-PEG moieties. The AT III molecule is contacted with endoglycanase to trim back glycosyl groups. The molecule is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor. The molecule is then contacted with ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 54K, AT III expressed in various mammalian systems is remodeled by the addition of glycoconjugated transferrin. The AT III molecule is contacted with ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been derivatized with a linker-galactose donor moiety. The molecule is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and endoglycanase-treated transferrin. In Figure 54M, AT III expressed in yeast is remodeled by the removal of mannose glycan structures and the addition of terminal galactose-PEG moieties. The molecule is contacted with endoglycanase to trim back glycosyl groups. The molecule is further contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor that has been derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 54N, AT III expressed in plant cells is remodeled by converting the glycan structures into mammalian-type complex glycans and then adding one or more terminal galactose-PEG moieties. The AT III molecule is contacted with xylosidase to remove xylose residues. The molecule is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor that has been derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 54O, AT III expressed in various mammalian systems is remodeled

by the addition of one or more terminal sialic acid-PEG moieties to terminal galactose moieties. The AT III molecule is contacted with ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid PEG donor that has been derivatized with PEG.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying the α and β subunits of human Chorionic Gonadotropin (hCG). Figures 55A to 55J present some examples. In Figure 55B, hCG expressed in various mammalian and insect systems is remodeled by the addition of terminal sialic acid-PEG moieties. The hCG molecule is contacted with sialidase to remove terminal sialic acid moieties. The molecule is then contacted with ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid donor molecule that has been derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 55C, hCG expressed in insect cell, yeast or fungi systems is remodeled by building out the N-linked glycans and the addition of terminal sialic acid-PEG moieties. The hCG molecule is contacted with GnT-I and GnT-II, and an appropriated N-acetylglucosamine donor. The molecule is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor. The molecule is further contacted with ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 55D, hCG expressed in various mammalian and insect systems is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal sialic acid-PEG moieties on O-linked glycan structures. The hCG molecule is contacted with sialidase to remove terminal sialic acid moieties. The molecule is then contacted with ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid donor to cap the glycan structures with sialic acid moieties. The molecule is then contacted with ST3Gal1 and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been derivatized with PEG. In Figure 55E, hCG expressed in various mammalian and insect systems is remodeled by the addition of sialic acid-PEG moieties to N-linked glycan structures. The hCG molecule is contacted with ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been derivatized with PEG. In Figure 55F, hCG expressed in insect cells, yeast or fungi, is remodeled by the addition of terminal N-acetylglucosamine-PEG molecules. The hCG molecule is contacted with GnT-I and GnT-II, and an appropriate N-acetylglucosamine donor that has been derivatized with PEG. In Figure 55G, hCG expressed in insect cells, yeast or fungi, is remodeled by the addition of not more than one N-acetylglucosamine-PEG moiety per N-linked glycan structure. The hCG molecule is contacted with GnT-I and an appropriate N-acetylglucosamine donor that has been derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 55H, hCG

expressed in various mammalian systems is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal sialic acid-PEG moiety to O-linked glycan structures. The hCG molecule is contacted with ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been derivatized with PEG. In Figure 55I, hCG expressed in various mammalian systems is remodeled by the addition of terminal sialic acid-PEG moieties. The hCG molecule is contacted with α2,8-SA and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 55J, hCG expressed in various mammalian systems is remodeled by the addition of terminal sialic acid moieties. The hCG molecule is contacted with poly-alpha2,8-ST and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been derivatized with a PEG moiety.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying alpha-galactosidase A (Fabrazyme™). Figures 56A to 56J present some examples. In Figure 56B, alpha-galactosidase A expressed in and secreted from various mammalian and insect systems is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal galactose-PEG-transferrin moieties. The alpha-galactosidase A molecule is contacted with Endo-H to trim back glycosyl groups. The molecule is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor that has been derivatized with PEG and transferrin. In Figure 56C, alpha-galactosidase A expressed in and secreted from various mammal and insect cell systems is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal sialic acid-linker-mannose-6-phosphate moieties. The alpha-galactosidase A molecule is contacted with sialidase to remove terminal sialic acid moieties. The molecule is further contacted with ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been conjugated via a linker to mannose-6-phosphate. In Figure 56D, alpha-galactosidase A expressed in NSO murine myeloma cells is remodeled by the addition of terminal sialic acid-linker-mannose-6-phosphate moieties. The alpha-galactosidase A molecule is contacted with sialidase and α-galactosidase to remove terminal sialic acid and galactose moieties. The molecule is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor. The molecule is then contacted with sialyltransferase and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been conjugated via a linker to mannose-6-phosphate. In Figure 56E, alpha-galactosidase A expressed in and secreted from various mammalian and insect cell systems is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal sialic acid-PEG moieties. The alpha-galactosidase A molecule is contacted with sialidase to remove terminal sialic acid moieties. The molecule is then contacted with sialyltransferase

and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 56F, alpha-galactosidase A expressed in mammalian, insect, yeast or fungi systems, is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal mannose-linker-ApoE moieties. The alpha-galactosidase A molecule is contacted with mannosyltransferase and an appropriate mannose donor that has been conjugated via a linker to ApoE. In Figure 56G, alpha-galactosidase A expressed in mammalian, insect, yeast or fungal systems is remodeled by the addition of galactose-linker-alpha2-macroglobulin moieties. The alpha-galactosidase A molecule is contacted with Endo-H to trim back glycosyl groups. The molecule is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor that has been conjugated via a linker to alpha2-macroglobulin. In Figure 56H, alpha-galactosidase A expressed in insect, yeast and fungal systems, is remodeled by the addition of one or more N-acetylglucosamine-PEG-mannose-6-phosphate moieties. The alpha-galactosidase molecule is contacted with GnT-I and an appropriate N-acetyl-glucosamine donor that has been derivatized with PEG and mannose-6-phosphate. In Figure 56I, alpha-galactosidase A expressed in insect, yeast or fungal systems, is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal galactose-PEG-transferrin moieties. The alpha-galactosidase A molecule is contacted with GnT-I and an appropriate N-acetyl-glucosamine donor. The molecule is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor that has been derivatized with PEG and transferrin. In Figure 56J, alpha-galactosidase A expressed in insect, yeast or fungi systems is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal sialic acid-PEG-melanotransferrin moieties. The alpha-galactosidase A molecule is contacted with GnT-I and GnT-II and an appropriate N-acetyl-glucosamine donor. The molecule is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor. The molecule is then contacted with sialyltransferase and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been derivatized with PEG and melanotransferrin.

In another exemplary embodiment, the invention provides methods for modifying alpha-iduronidase (Aldurazyme™). Figures 57A to 57J present some examples. In Figure 57B, alpha-iduronidase expressed in and secreted from various mammalian and insect systems is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal galactose-PEG-transferrin moieties. The alpha-iduronidase molecule is contacted with Endo-H to trim back glycosyl groups. The molecule is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate

galactose donor that has been derivatized with PEG and transferrin. In Figure 57C, alpha-iduronidase expressed in and secreted from various mammal and insect cell systems is remodeled by the addition of terminal sialic acid-linker-mannose-6-phosphate moieties. The alpha-iduronidase molecule is contacted with sialidase to remove terminal sialic acid moieties. The molecule is then contacted with ST3Gal3 and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been conjugated via a linker to mannose-6-phosphate. In Figure 57D, alpha-iduronidase expressed in NSO murine myeloma cells is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal sialic acid-linker-mannose-6-phosphate moieties. The alpha-iduronidase molecule is contacted with sialidase and α-galactosidase to remove terminal sialic acid and galactose moieties. The molecule is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor. The molecule is further contacted with sialyltransferase and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been conjugated via a linker to mannose-6-phosphate. In Figure 57E, alpha-iduronidase expressed in and secreted from various mammalian and insect cell systems is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal sialic acid-PEG moieties. The alpha-iduronidase molecule is contacted with sialidase to remove terminal sialic acid moieties. The molecule is further contacted with sialyltransferase and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been derivatized with a PEG moiety. In Figure 57F, alpha-iduronidase expressed in mammalian, insect, yeast or fungi systems is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal mannose-linker-ApoE moieties. The alpha-iduronidase molecule is contacted with mannosyltransferase and an appropriate mannose donor that has been conjugated via a linker to ApoE. In Figure 57G, alpha-iduronidase expressed in mammalian, insect, yeast or fungal systems is remodeled by the addition of one or more galactose-linker-alpha2-macroglobulin moieties. The alpha-iduronidase molecule is contacted with Endo-H to trim back glycosyl groups. The molecule is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor that has been conjugated via a linker to alpha2-macroglobulin. In Figure 57H, alpha-iduronidase expressed in insect, yeast and fungal systems, is remodeled by the addition of one or more N-acetylglucosamine-PEG-mannose-6-phosphate moieties. The alpha-galactosidase molecule is contacted with GnT-I and an appropriate N-acetyl-glucosamine donor that has been derivatized with PEG and mannose-6-phosphate. In Figure 57I, alpha-iduronidase expressed in insect, yeast or fungal systems, is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal galactose-PEG-transferrin

moieties. The alpha-iduronidase molecule is contacted with GnT-I and an appropriate N-acetyl-glucosamine donor. The molecule is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor that has been derivatized with PEG and transferrin. In Figure 57J, alpha-iduronidase expressed in insect, yeast or fungi systems, is remodeled by the addition of one or more terminal sialic acid-PEG-melanotransferrin moieties. The alpha-iduronidase molecule is contacted with GnT-I and GnT-II and an appropriate N-acetyl-glucosamine donor. The molecule is then contacted with galactosyltransferase and an appropriate galactose donor. The molecule is further contacted with sialyltransferase and an appropriate sialic acid donor that has been derivatized with PEG and melanotransferrin.

A. Creation or elimination of N-linked glycosylation sites

The present invention contemplates the use of peptides in which the site of the glycan chain(s) on the peptide have been altered from that of the native peptide. Typically, N-linked glycan chains are linked to the primary peptide structure at asparagine residues where the asparagine residue is within an amino acid sequence that is recognized by a membrane-bound glycosyltransferase in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER). Typically, the recognition site on the primary peptide structure is the sequence asparagine-X-serine/threonine where X can be any amino acid except proline and aspartic acid. While this recognition site is typical, the invention further encompasses peptides that have N-linked glycan chains at other recognition sites where the N-linked chains are added using natural or recombinant glycosyltransferases.

Since the recognition site for N-linked glycosylation of a peptide is known, it is within the skill of persons in the art to create mutated primary peptide sequences wherein a native N-linked glycosylation recognition site is removed, or alternatively or in addition, one or more additional N-glycosylation recognition sites are created. Most simply, an asparagine residue can be removed from the primary sequence of the peptide thereby removing the attachment site for a glycan, thus removing one glycan from the mature peptide. For example, a native recognition site with the sequence of asparagine-serine-serine can be genetically engineered to have the sequence leucine-serine-serine, thus eliminating a N-linked glycosylation site at this position.

Further, an N-linked glycosylation site can be removed by altering the residues in the recognition site so that even though the asparagine residue is present, one or more of the

additional recognition residues are absent. For example, a native sequence of asparagine-serine-serine can be mutated to asparagine-serine-lysine, thus eliminating an N-glycosylation site at that position. In the case of N-linked glycosylation sites comprising residues other than the typical recognition sites described above, the skilled artisan can determine the sequence and residues required for recognition by the appropriate glycosyltransferase, and then mutate at least one residue so the appropriate glycosyltransferase no longer recognizes that site. In other words, it is well within the skill of the artisan to manipulate the primary sequence of a peptide such that glycosylation sites are either created or are removed, or both, thereby generating a peptide having an altered glycosylation pattern. The invention should therefore not be construed to be limited to any primary peptide sequence provided herein as the sole sequence for glycan remodeling, but rather should be construed to include any and all peptide sequences suitable for glycan remodeling.

To create a mutant peptide, the nucleic acid sequence encoding the primary sequence of the peptide is altered so that native codons encoding native amino acid residues are mutated to generate a codon encoding another amino acid residue. Techniques for altering nucleic acid sequence are common in the art and are described for example in any well-known molecular biology manual.

In addition, the nucleic acid encoding a primary peptide structure can be synthesized *in vitro*, using standard techniques. For example, a nucleic acid molecule can be synthesized in a "gene machine" using protocols such as the phosphoramidite method. If chemically-synthesized double stranded DNA is required for an application such as the synthesis of a nucleic acid or a fragment thereof, then each complementary strand is synthesized separately. The production of short nucleic acids (60 to 80 base pairs) is technically straightforward and can be accomplished by synthesizing the complementary strands and then annealing them. For the production of longer nucleic acids (>300 base pairs), special strategies may be required, because the coupling efficiency of each cycle during chemical DNA synthesis is seldom 100%. To overcome this problem, synthetic genes (double-stranded) are assembled in modular form from single-stranded fragments that are from 20 to 100 nucleotides in length. For reviews on polynucleotide synthesis, see, for example, Glick and Pasternak (Molecular Biotechnology, Principles and Applications of Recombinant DNA,

1994, ASM Press), Itakura et al. (1984, Annu. Rev. Biochem. 53:323), and Climie et al. (1990, Proc. Nat'l Acad. Sci. USA 87:633).

Additionally, changes in the nucleic acid sequence encoding the peptide can be made by site-directed mutagenesis. As will be appreciated, this technique typically employs a phage vector which exists in both a single stranded and double stranded form. Typical vectors useful in site-directed mutagenesis include vectors such as the M13 phage. These phage are readily available and their use is generally well known to those skilled in the art. Double stranded plasmids are also routinely employed in site-directed mutagenesis which eliminates the step of transferring the nucleic acid of interest from a plasmid to a phage.

In general, site-directed mutagenesis is performed by first obtaining a single-stranded vector or melting the two strands of a double stranded vector which includes within its sequence a DNA sequence which encodes the desired peptide. An oligonucleotide primer bearing the desired mutated sequence is prepared generally synthetically. This primer is then annealed with the single-stranded vector, and subjected to DNA polymerizing enzymes such as *E. coli* polymerase I Klenow fragment, in order to complete the synthesis of the mutation-bearing strand. Thus, a heteroduplex is formed wherein one strand encodes the original non-mutated sequence and the second strand bears the desired mutation. This heteroduplex vector is then used to transform or transfect appropriate cells, such as *E. coli* cells, and clones are selected which include recombinant vectors bearing the mutated sequence arrangement. A genetic selection scheme was devised by Kunkel et al. (1987, Kunkel et al., Methods Enzymol. 154:367-382) to enrich for clones incorporating the mutagenic oligonucleotide. Alternatively, the use of PCR™ with commercially available thermostable enzymes such as Taq polymerase may be used to incorporate a mutagenic oligonucleotide primer into an amplified DNA fragment that can then be cloned into an appropriate cloning or expression vector. The PCR™-mediated mutagenesis procedures of Tomic et al. (1990, Nucl. Acids Res., 12:1656) and Upender et al. (1995, Biotechniques, 18:29-31) provide two examples of such protocols. A PCR™ employing a thermostable ligase in addition to a thermostable polymerase may also be used to incorporate a phosphorylated mutagenic oligonucleotide into an amplified DNA fragment that may then be cloned into an appropriate cloning or expression vector. The mutagenesis procedure described by Michael (1994, Biotechniques 16:410-412) provides an example of one such protocol.

Not all Asn-X-Ser/Thr sequences are N-glycosylated suggesting the context in which the motif is presented is important. In another approach, libraries of mutant peptides having novel N-linked consensus sites are created in order to identify novel N-linked sites that are glycosylated *in vivo* and are beneficial to the activity, stability or other characteristics of the peptide.

As noted previously, the consensus sequence for the addition of N-linked glycan chains in glycoproteins is Asn-X-Ser/Thr where X can be any amino acid. The nucleotide sequence encoding the amino acid two positions to the carboxyl terminal side of the Asn may be mutated to encode a Ser and/or Thr residue using standard procedures known to those of ordinary skill in the art. As stated above not all Asn-X-Ser/Thr sites are modified by the addition of glycans. Therefore, each recombinant mutated glycoprotein must be expressed in a fungal, yeast or animal or mammalian expression system and analyzed for the addition of an N-linked glycan chain. The techniques for the characterization of glycosylation sites are well known to one skilled in the art. Further, the biological function of the mutated recombinant glycoprotein can be determined using assays standard for the particular protein being examined. Thus, it becomes a simple matter to manipulate the primary sequence of a peptide and identify novel glycosylation sites contained therein, and further determine the effect of the novel site on the biological activity of the peptide.

In an alternative embodiment, the nucleotide sequence encoding the amino acid two positions to the amino terminal side of Ser/Thr residues may be mutated to encode an Asn using standard procedures known to those of ordinary skill in the art. The procedures to determine whether a novel glycosylation site has been created and the effect of this site on the biological activity of the peptide are described above.

B. Creation or elimination of O-linked glycosylation sites

The addition of an O-linked glycosylation site to a peptide is conveniently accomplished by altering the primary amino acid sequence of the peptide such that it contains one or more additional O-linked glycosylation sites compared with the beginning primary amino acid sequence of the peptide. The addition of an O-linked glycosylation site to the peptide may also be accomplished by incorporation of one or more amino acid species into the peptide which comprises an –OH group, preferably serine or threonine residues, within the sequence of the peptide, such that the OH group is accessible and available for O-linked

glycosylation. Similar to the discussion of alteration of N-linked glycosylation sites in a peptide, the primary amino acid sequence of the peptide is preferably altered at the nucleotide level. Specific nucleotides in the DNA sequence encoding the peptide may be altered such that a desired amino acid is encoded by the sequence. Mutation(s) in DNA are preferably made using methods known in the art, such as the techniques of phosphoramidite method DNA synthesis and site-directed mutagenesis described above.

Alternatively, the nucleotide sequence encoding a putative site for O-linked glycan addition can be added to the DNA molecule in one or several copies to either 5' or the 3' end of the molecule. The altered DNA sequence is then expressed in any one of a fungal, yeast, or animal or mammalian expression system and analyzed for the addition of the sequence to the peptide and whether or not this sequence is a functional O-linked glycosylation site. Briefly, a synthetic peptide acceptor sequence is introduced at either the 5' or 3' end of the nucleotide molecule. In principle, the addition of this type of sequence is less disruptive to the resulting glycoprotein when expressed in a suitable expression system. The altered DNA is then expressed in CHO cells or other suitable expression system and the proteins expressed thereby are examined for the presence of an O-linked glycosylation site. In addition, the presence or absence of glycan chains can be determined.

In yet another approach, advantageous sites for new O-linked sites may be found in a peptide by creating libraries of the peptide containing various new O-linked sites. For example, the consensus amino acid sequence for N-acetylgalactosamine addition by an N-acetylgalactosaminyltransferase depends on the specific transferase used. The amino acid sequence of a peptide may be scanned to identify contiguous groups of amino acids that can be mutated to generate potential sites for addition of O-linked glycan chains. These mutations can be generated using standard procedures known to those of ordinary skill in the art as described previously. In order to determine if any discovered glycosylation site is actually glycosylated, each recombinant mutated peptide is then expressed in a suitable expression system and is subsequently analyzed for the addition of the site and/or the presence of an O-linked glycan chain.

C. Chemical synthesis of peptides

While the primary structure of peptides useful in the invention can be generated most efficiently in a cell-based expression system, it is within the scope of the present invention

that the peptides may be generated synthetically. Chemical synthesis of peptides is well known in the art and include, without limitation, stepwise solid phase synthesis, and fragment condensation either in solution or on solid phase. A classic stepwise solid phase synthesis of involves covalently linking an amino acid corresponding to the carboxy-terminal amino acid of the desired peptide chain to a solid support and extending the peptide chain toward the amino end by stepwise coupling of activated amino acid derivatives having activated carboxyl groups. After completion of the assembly of the fully protected solid phase bound peptide chain, the peptide-solid phase covalent attachment is cleaved by suitable chemistry and the protecting groups are removed to yield the product peptide. See, R. Merrifield, Solid Phase Peptide Synthesis: The Synthesis of a Tetrapeptide, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 85:2149-2154 (1963). The longer the peptide chain, the more challenging it is to obtain high-purity well-defined products. Due to the production of complex mixtures, the stepwise solid phase synthesis approach has size limitations. In general, well-defined peptides of 100 contiguous amino acid residues or more are not routinely prepared via stepwise solid phase synthesis.

The segment condensation method involves preparation of several peptide segments by the solid phase stepwise method, followed by cleavage from the solid phase and purification of these maximally protected segments. The protected segments are condensed one-by-one to the first segment, which is bound to the solid phase.

The peptides useful in the present invention may be synthesized by exclusive solid phase synthesis, partial solid phase methods, fragment condensation or classical solution synthesis. These synthesis methods are well-known to those of skill in the art (see, for example, Merrifield, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 85:2149 (1963), Stewart et al., "Solid Phase Peptide Synthesis" (2nd Edition), (Pierce Chemical Co. 1984), Bayer and Rapp, Chem. Pept. Prot. 3:3 (1986), Atherton et al., Solid Phase Peptide Synthesis: A Practical Approach (IRL Press 1989), Fields and Colowick, "Solid-Phase Peptide Synthesis," Methods in Enzymology Volume 289 (Academic Press 1997), and Lloyd-Williams et al., Chemical Approaches to the Synthesis of Peptides and Peptides (CRC Press, Inc. 1997)). Variations in total chemical synthesis strategies, such as "native chemical ligation" and "expressed peptide ligation" are also standard (see, for example, Dawson et al., Science 266:776 (1994), Hackeng et al., Proc. Nat'l Acad. Sci. USA 94:7845 (1997), Dawson, Methods Enzymol. 287: 34 (1997), Muir et al, Proc. Nat'l Acad. Sci. USA 95:6705 (1998), and Severinov and Muir, J. Biol. Chem.

273:16205 (1998)). Also useful are the solid phase peptide synthesis methods developed by Gryphon Sciences, South San Francisco, CA. See, U.S. Patent Nos. 6,326,468, 6,217,873, 6,174,530, and 6,001,364, all of which are incorporated in their entirety by reference herein.

D. Post-translational modifications

It will be appreciated to one of ordinary skill in the art that peptides may undergo post-translational modification besides the addition of N-linked and/or O-linked glycans thereto. It is contemplated that peptides having post-translational modifications other than glycosylation can be used as peptides in the invention, as long as the desired biological activity or function of the peptide is maintained or improved. Such post-translational modifications may be natural modifications usually carried out *in vivo*, or engineered modifications of the peptide carried out *in vitro*. Contemplated known modifications include, but are not limited to, acetylation, acylation, ADP-ribosylation, amidation, covalent attachment of flavin, covalent attachment of a heme moiety, covalent attachment of a nucleotide or nucleotide derivative, covalent attachment of a lipid or lipid derivative, covalent attachment of phosphotidylinositol, cross-linking, cyclization, disulfide bond formation, demethylation, formation of covalent crosslinks, formation of cysteine, formation of pyroglutamate, formylation, gamma carboxylation, glycosylation, GPI anchor formation, hydroxylation, iodination, methylation, myristoylation, oxidation, proteolytic processing, phosphorylation, prenylation, racemization, selenoylation, sulfation, transfer-RNA mediated addition of amino acids to peptides such as arginylation, and ubiquitination. Enzymes that may be used to carry out many of these modifications are well known in the art, and available commercially from companies such as Boehringer Mannheim (Indianapolis, IN) and Sigma Chemical Company (St. Louis, MO), among others.

Such modifications are well known to those of skill in the art and have been described in great detail in the scientific literature. Several particularly common modifications, glycosylation, lipid attachment, sulfation, gamma-carboxylation of glutamic acid residues, hydroxylation and ADP-ribosylation, for instance, are described in most basic texts, such as Peptides--Structure and Molecular Properties, 2nd Ed., T. E. Creighton, W. H. Freeman and Company, New York (1993). Many detailed reviews are available on this subject, such as by Wold, F., Post-translational Covalent Modification of Peptides, B. C. Johnson, Ed., Academic

Press, New York 1-12 (1983); Seifter et al. (Meth. Enzymol. 182: 626-646 (1990)) and Rattan et al. (Ann. N.Y. Acad. Sci. 663:48-62 (1992)).

Covalent modifications of a peptide may also be introduced into the molecule *in vitro* by reacting targeted amino-acid residues of the peptide with an organic derivatizing agent that is capable of reacting with selected side chains or terminal amino-acid residues. Most commonly derivatized residues are cysteinyl, histidyl, lysinyl, arginyl, tyrosyl, glutaminyl, asparaginyl and amino terminal residues. Hydroxylation of proline and lysine, phosphorylation of hydroxyl groups of seryl and threonyl residues, methylation of the alpha-amino groups of lysine, histidine, and histidine side chains, acetylation of the N-terminal amine and amidation of the C-terminal carboxylic groups. Such derivatized moieties may improve the solubility, absorption, biological half life and the like. The moieties may also eliminate or attenuate any undesirable side effect of the peptide and the like.

In addition, derivatization with bifunctional agents is useful for cross-linking the peptide to water insoluble support matrices or to other macromolecular carriers. Commonly used cross-linking agents include glutaraldehyde, N-hydroxysuccinimide esters, homobifunctional imidoesters, 1,1-bis(-diazoloacetyl)-2-phenylethane, and bifunctional maleimides. Derivatizing agents such as methyl-3-[9p-azidophenyl)]dithiopropioimidate yield photoactivatable intermediates that are capable of forming crosslinks in the presence of light. Alternatively, reactive water-insoluble matrices such as cyanogen bromide activated carbohydrates and the reactive substrates described in U.S. Pat. Nos. 3,969,287 and 3,691,016 may be employed for peptide immobilization.

E. Fusion peptides/peptides

Peptides useful in the present invention may comprise fusion peptides. Fusion peptides are particularly advantageous where biological and/or functional characteristics of two peptides are desired to be combined in one peptide molecule. Such fusion peptides can present combinations of biological activity and function that are not found in nature to create novel and useful molecules of therapeutic and industrial applications. Biological activities of interest include, but are not limited to, enzymatic activity, receptor and/or ligand activity, immunogenic motifs, and structural domains.

Such fusion peptides are well known in the art, and the methods of creation will be well-known to those in the art. For example, a human α-interferon—human albumin fusion peptide has been made wherein the resulting peptide has the therapeutic benefits of α-interferon combined with the long circulating life of albumin, thereby creating a therapeutic composition that allows reduced dosing frequency and potentially reduced side effects in patients. See, Albuferon™ from Human Genome Sciences, Inc. and U.S. Patent No. 5,766,883. Other fusion peptides include antibody molecules that are described elsewhere herein.

F. Generation of smaller "biologically active" molecules

The peptides used in the invention may be variants of native peptides, wherein a fragment of the native peptide is used in place of the full length native peptide. In addition, pre-pro-, and pre-peptides are contemplated. Variant peptides may be smaller in size that the native peptide, and may comprise one or more domains of a larger peptide. Selection of specific peptide domains can be advantageous when the biological activity of certain domains in the peptide is desired, but the biological activity of other domains in the peptide is not desired. Also included are truncations of the peptide and internal deletions which may enhance the desired therapeutic effect of the peptide. Any such forms of a peptide is contemplated to be useful in the present invention provided that the desired biological activity of the peptide is preserved.

Shorter versions of peptides may have unique advantages not found in the native peptide. In the case of human albumin, it has been found that a truncated form comprising as little as 63% of the native albumin peptide is advantageous as a plasma volume expander. The truncated albumin peptide is considered to be better than the native peptide for this therapeutic purpose because an individual peptide dose of only one-half to two-thirds that of natural-human serum albumin, or recombinant human serum albumin is required for the equivalent colloid osmotic effect. See U.S. Patent No. 5,380,712, the entirety of which is incorporated by reference herein.

Smaller "biologically active" peptides have also been found to have enhanced therapeutic activity as compared to the native peptide. The therapeutic potential of IL-2 is limited by various side effects dominated by the vascular leak syndrome. A shorter

chemically synthesized version of the peptide consisting of residues 1-30 corresponding to the entire α-helix was found to fold properly and contain the natural IL-2 biological activity with out the attending side effects.

G. Generation of novel peptides

The peptide of the invention may be derived from a primary sequence of a native peptide, or may be engineered using any of the many means known to those of skill in the art. Such engineered peptides can be designed and/or selected because of enhanced or novel properties as compared with the native peptide. For example, peptides may be engineered to have increased enzyme reaction rates, increased or decreased binding affinity to a substrate or ligand, increased or decreased binding affinity to a receptor, altered specificity for a substrate, ligand, receptor or other binding partner, increased or decreased stability *in vitro* and/or *in vivo*, or increased or decreased immunogenicity in an animal.

H. Mutations

1. Rational design mutation

The peptides useful in the methods of the invention may be mutated to enhance a desired biological activity or function, to diminish an undesirable property of the peptide, and/or to add novel activities or functions to the peptide. "Rational peptide design" may be used to generate such altered peptides. Once the amino acid sequence and structure of the peptide is known and a desired mutation planned, the mutations can be made most conveniently to the corresponding nucleic acid codon which encodes the amino acid residue that is desired to be mutated. One of skill in the art can easily determine how the nucleic acid sequence should be altered based on the universal genetic code, and knowledge of codon preferences in the expression system of choice. A mutation in a codon may be made to change the amino acid residue that will be polymerized into the peptide during translation. Alternatively, a codon may be mutated so that the corresponding encoded amino acid residue is the same, but the codon choice is better suited to the desired peptide expression system. For example, cys-residues may be replaced with other amino acids to remove disulfide bonds from the mature peptide, catalytic domains may be mutated to alter biological activity, and in general, isoforms of the peptide can be engineered. Such mutations can be point mutations, deletions, insertions and truncations, among others.

Techniques to mutate specific amino acids in a peptide are well known in the art. The technique of site-directed mutagenesis, discussed above, is well suited for the directed mutation of codons. The oligonucleotide-mediated mutagenesis method is also discussed in detail in Sambrook et al. (2001, Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, New York, starting at page 15.51). Systematic deletions, insertions and truncations can be made using linker insertion mutagenesis, digestion with nuclease Bal31, and linker-scanning mutagenesis, among other method well known to those in the art (Sambrook et al., 2001, Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, New York).

Rational peptide design has been successfully used to increase the stability of enzymes with respect to thermoinactivation and oxidation. For example, the stability of an enzyme was improved by removal of asparagine residues in α-amylase (Declerck et al., 2000, J. Mol. Biol. 301:1041-1057), the introduction of more rigid structural elements such as proline into α-amylase (Igarashi et al., 1999, Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem. 63:1535-1540) and D-xylose isomerase (Zhu et al., 1999, Peptide Eng. 12:635-638). Further, the introduction of additional hydrophobic contacts stabilized 3-isopropylmalate dehydrogenase (Akanuma et al., 1999, Eur. J. Biochem. 260:499-504) and formate dehydrogenase obtained from *Pseudomonas* sp. (Rojkova et al., 1999, FEBS Lett. 445:183-188). The mechanisms behind the stabilizing effect of these mutations is generally applicable to many peptides. These and similar mutations are contemplated to be useful with respect to the peptides remodeled in the methods of the present invention.

2. Random mutagenesis techniques

Novel peptides useful in the methods of the invention may be generated using techniques that introduce random mutations in the coding sequence of the nucleic acid. The nucleic acid is then expressed in a desired expression system, and the resulting peptide is assessed for properties of interest. Techniques to introduce random mutations into DNA sequences are well known in the art, and include PCR mutagenesis, saturation mutagenesis, and degenerate oligonucleotide approaches. See Sambrook and Russell (2001, Molecular Cloning, A Laboratory Approach, Cold Spring Harbor Press, Cold Spring Harbor, NY) and Ausubel et al. (2002, Current Protocols in Molecular Biology, John Wiley & Sons, NY).

In PCR mutagenesis, reduced Taq polymerase fidelity is used to introduce random mutations into a cloned fragment of DNA (Leung et al., 1989, Technique 1:11-15). This is a very powerful and relatively rapid method of introducing random mutations into a DNA sequence. The DNA region to be mutagenized is amplified using the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) under conditions that reduce the fidelity of DNA synthesis by Taq DNA polymerase, e.g., by using an altered dGTP/dATP ratio and by adding Mn^{2+} to the PCR reaction. The pool of amplified DNA fragments are inserted into appropriate cloning vectors to provide random mutant libraries.

Saturation mutagenesis allows for the rapid introduction of a large number of single base substitutions into cloned DNA fragments (Mayers et al., 1985, Science 229:242). This technique includes generation of mutations, e.g., by chemical treatment or irradiation of single-stranded DNA *in vitro*, and synthesis of a complementary DNA strand. The mutation frequency can be modulated by modulating the severity of the treatment, and essentially all possible base substitutions can be obtained. Because this procedure does not involve a genetic selection for mutant fragments, both neutral substitutions as well as those that alter function, are obtained. The distribution of point mutations is not biased toward conserved sequence elements.

A library of nucleic acid homologs can also be generated from a set of degenerate oligonucleotide sequences. Chemical synthesis of a degenerate oligonucleotide sequences can be carried out in an automatic DNA synthesizer, and the synthetic genes may then be ligated into an appropriate expression vector. The synthesis of degenerate oligonucleotides is known in the art (see for example, Narang, SA (1983) Tetrahedron 39:3; Itakura et al. (1981) Recombinant DNA, Proc 3rd Cleveland Sympos. Macromolecules, ed. AG Walton, Amsterdam: Elsevier pp. 273-289; Itakura et al. (1984) Annu. Rev. Biochem. 53:323; Itakura et al. (1984) Science 198:1056; Ike et al. (1983) Nucleic Acid Res. 11:477. Such techniques have been employed in the directed evolution of other peptides (see, for example, Scott et al. (1990) Science 249:386-390; Roberts et al. (1992) PNAS 89:2429-2433; Devlin et al. (1990) Science 249: 404-406; Cwirla et al. (1990) PNAS 87: 6378-6382; as well as U.S. Pat. Nos. 5,223,409, 5,198,346, and 5,096,815).

a. Directed evolution

Peptides useful in the methods of the invention may also be generated using "directed evolution" techniques. In contrast to site directed mutagenesis techniques where knowledge of the structure of the peptide is required, there now exist strategies to generate libraries of mutations from which to obtain peptides with improved properties without knowledge of the structural features of the peptide. These strategies are generally known as "directed evolution" technologies and are different from traditional random mutagenesis procedures in that they involve subjecting the nucleic acid sequence encoding the peptide of interest to recursive rounds of mutation, screening and amplification.

In some "directed evolution" techniques, the diversity in the nucleic acids obtained is generated by mutation methods that randomly create point mutations in the nucleic acid sequence. The point mutation techniques include, but are not limited to, "error-prone PCR™" (Caldwell and Joyce, 1994; PCR Methods Appl. 2: 28-33; and Ke and Madison, 1997, Nucleic Acids Res. 25: 3371-3372), repeated oligonucleotide-directed mutagenesis (Reidhaar-Olson et al., 1991, Methods Enzymol. 208:564-586), and any of the aforementioned methods of random mutagenesis.

Another method of creating diversity upon which directed evolution can act is the use of mutator genes. The nucleic acid of interest is cultured in a mutator cell strain the genome of which typically encodes defective DNA repair genes (U.S. Patent No. 6,365,410; Selifonova et al., 2001, Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 67:3645-3649; Long-McGie et al., 2000, Biotech. Bioeng. 68:121-125; see, Genencor International Inc, Palo Alto CA).

Achieving diversity using directed evolution techniques may also be accomplished using saturation mutagenesis along with degenerate primers (Gene Site Saturation Mutagenesis™, Diversa Corp., San Diego, CA). In this type of saturation mutagenesis, degenerate primers designed to cover the length of the nucleic acid sequence to be diversified are used to prime the polymerase in PCR reactions. In this manner, each codon of a coding sequence for an amino acid may be mutated to encode each of the remaining common nineteen amino acids. This technique may also be used to introduce mutations, deletions and insertions to specific regions of a nucleic acid coding sequence while leaving the rest of the nucleic acid molecule untouched. Procedures for the gene saturation technique are well known in the art, and can be found in U.S. Patent 6,171,820.

b. DNA shuffling

Novel peptides useful in the methods of the invention may also be generated using the techniques of gene-shuffling, motif-shuffling, exon-shuffling, and/or codon-shuffling (collectively referred to as "DNA shuffling"). DNA shuffling techniques are may be employed to modulate the activities of peptides useful in the invention and may be used to generate peptides having altered activity. See, generally, U.S. Pat. Nos. 5,605,793; 5,811,238; 5,830,721; 5,834,252; and 5,837,458, and Stemmer et al. (1994, Nature 370(6488):389-391); Crameri et al. (1998, Nature 391 (6664):288-291); Zhang et al. (1997, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 94(9):4504-4509); Stemmer et al. (1994, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci USA 91(22):10747-10751), Patten et al. (1997, Curr. Opinion Biotechnol. 8:724-33); Harayama, (1998, Trends Biotechnol. 16(2):76-82); Hansson, et al., (1999, J. Mol. Biol. 287:265-76); and Lorenzo and Blasco (1998, Biotechniques 24(2):308-13) (each of these patents are hereby incorporated by reference in its entirety).

DNA shuffling involves the assembly of two or more DNA segments by homologous or site-specific recombination to generate variation in the polynucleotide sequence. DNA shuffling has been used to generate novel variations of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 proteins (Pekrun et al., 2002, J. Virol. 76(6):2924-35), triazine hydrolases (Raillard et al. 2001, Chem Biol 8(9):891-898), murine leukemia virus (MLV) proteins (Powell et al. 2000, Nat Biotechnol 18(12):1279-1282), and indoleglycerol phosphate synthase (Merz et al. 2000, Biochemistry 39(5):880-889).

The technique of DNA shuffling was developed to generate biomolecular diversity by mimicking natural recombination by allowing *in vitro* homologous recombination of DNA (Stemmler, 1994, Nature 370: 389-391; and Stemmler, 1994, PNAS 91: 10747-10751). Generally, in this method a population of related genes is fragmented and subjected to recursive cycles of denaturation, rehybridization, followed by the extension of the 5' overhangs by Taq polymerase. With each cycle, the length of the fragments increases, and DNA recombination occurs when fragments originating from different genes hybridize to each other. The initial fragmentation of the DNA is usually accomplished by nuclease digestion, typically using DNase (see Stemmler references, above), but may also be accomplished by interrupted PCR synthesis (U.S. Patent 5,965,408, incorporated herein by reference in its entirety; see, Diversa Corp., San Diego, CA). DNA shuffling methods have advantages over random point mutation methods in that direct recombination of beneficial

mutations generated by each round of shuffling is achieved and there is therefore a self selection for improved phenotypes of peptides.

The techniques of DNA shuffling are well known to those in art. Detailed explanations of such technology is found in Stemmler, 1994, Nature 370: 389-391 and Stemmler, 1994, PNAS 91: 10747-10751. The DNA shuffling technique is also described in U.S. Patents 6,180,406, 6,165,793, 6,132,970, 6,117,679, 6,096,548, 5,837,458, 5,834,252, 5,830,721, 5,811,238, and 5,605,793 (all of which are incorporated by reference herein in their entirety) .

The art also provides even more recent modifications of the basic technique of DNA shuffling. In one example, exon shuffling, exons or combinations of exons that encode specific domains of peptides are amplified using chimeric oligonucleotides. The amplified molecules are then recombined by self-priming PCR assembly (Kolkman and Stemmler, 2001, Nat. Biotech. 19:423-428). In another example, using the technique of random chimeragenesis on transient templates (RACHITT) library construction, single stranded parental DNA fragments are annealed onto a full-length single-stranded template (Coco et al., 2001, Nat. Biotechnol. 19:354-359). In yet another example, staggered extension process (StEP), thermocycling with very abbreviated annealing/extension cycles is employed to repeatedly interrupt DNA polymerization from flanking primers (Zhao et al., 1998, Nat. Biotechnol. 16: 258-261). In the technique known as CLERY, *in vitro* family shuffling is combined with *in vivo* homologous recombination in yeast (Abecassis et al., 2000, Nucleic Acids Res. 28:E88;). To maximize intergenic recombination, single stranded DNA from complementary strands of each of the nucleic acids are digested with DNase and annealed (Kikuchi et al., 2000, Gene 243:133-137). The blunt ends of two truncated nucleic acids of variable lengths that are linked by a cleavable sequence are then ligated to generate gene fusion without homologous recombination (Sieber et al., 2001, Nat Biotechnol. 19:456-460; Lutz et al., 2001, Nucleic Acids Res. 29:E16; Ostermeier et al., 1999, Nat. Biotechnol. 17:1205-1209; Lutz and Benkovic, 2000, Curr. Opin. Biotechnol. 11:319-324). Recombination between nucleic acids with little sequence homology in common has also been enhanced using exonuclease-mediated blunt-ending of DNA fragments and ligating the fragments together to recombine them (U.S. Patent No. 6,361,974, incorporated herein by reference in its entirety). The invention contemplates the use of each and every variation

described above as a means of enhancing the biological properties of any of the peptides and/or enzymes useful in the methods of the invention.

In addition to published protocols detailing directed evolution and gene shuffling techniques, commercial services are now available that will undertake the gene shuffling and selection procedures on peptides of choice. Maxygen (Redwood City, CA) offers commercial services to generate custom DNA shuffled libraries. In addition, this company will perform customized directed evolution procedures including gene shuffling and selection on a peptide family of choice.

Optigenix, Inc. (Newark, DE) offers the related service of plasmid shuffling. Optigenix uses families of genes to obtain mutants therein having new properties. The nucleic acid of interest is cloned into a plasmid in an *Aspergillus* expression system. The DNA of the related family is then introduced into the expression system and recombination in conserved regions of the family occurs in the host. Resulting mutant DNAs are then expressed and the peptide produced therefrom are screened for the presence of desired properties and the absence of undesired properties.

c. Screening procedures

Following each recursive round of "evolution," the desired peptides expressed by mutated genes are screened for characteristics of interest. The "candidate" genes are then amplified and pooled for the next round of DNA shuffling. The screening procedure used is highly dependant on the peptide that is being "evolved" and the characteristic of interest. Characteristics such as peptide stability, biological activity, antigenicity, among others can be selected using procedures that are well known in the art. Individual assays for the biological activity of preferred peptides useful in the methods of the invention are described elsewhere herein.

d. Combinations of techniques

It will be appreciated by the skilled artisan that the above techniques of mutation and selection can be combined with each other and with additional procedures to generate the best possible peptide molecule useful in the methods of the invention. Thus, the invention is not limited to any one method for the generation of peptides, and should be construed to encompass any and all of the methodology described herein. For example, a procedure for introducing point mutations into a nucleic acid sequence may be performed initially, followed

by recursive rounds of DNA shuffling, selection and amplification. The initial introduction of point mutations may be used to introduce diversity into a gene population where it is lacking, and the following round of DNA shuffling and screening will select and recombine advantageous point mutations.

III. Glycosidases and Glycotransferases

A. Glycosidases

Glycosidases are glycosyltransferases that use water as an acceptor molecule, and as such, are typically glycoside-hydrolytic enzymes. Glycosidases can be used for the formation of glycosidic bonds *in vitro* by controlling the thermodynamics or kinetics of the reaction mixture. Even with modified reaction conditions, though, glycosidase reactions can be difficult to work with, and glycosidases tend to give low synthetic yields as a result of the reversible transglycosylase reaction and the competing hydrolytic reaction.

A glycosidase can function by retaining the stereochemistry at the bond being broken during hydrolysis or by inverting the stereochemistry at the bond being broken during hydrolysis, classifying the glycosidase as either a "retaining" glycosidase or an "inverting" glycosidase, respectively. Retaining glycosidases have two critical carboxylic acid moieties present in the active site, with one carboxylate acting as an acid/base catalyst and the other as a nucleophile, whereas with the inverting glycosidases, one carboxylic acid functions as an acid and the other functions as a base.

Methods to determine the activity and linkage specificity of any glycosidase are well known in the art, including a simplified HPLC protocol (Jacob and Scudder, 1994, Methods in Enzymol. 230: 280-300). A general discussion of glycosidases and glycosidase treatment is found in Glycobiology, A Practical Approach, (1993, Fukuda and Kobata eds., Oxford University Press Inc., New York).

Glycosidases useful in the invention include, but are not limited to, sialidase, galactosidase, endoglycanase, mannosidase (i.e., α and β, ManI, ManII and ManIII,) xylosidase, fucosidase, *Agrobacterium* sp. β-glucosidase, *Cellulomonas fimi* mannosidase 2A, *Humicola insolens* glycosidase, *Sulfolobus solfataricus* glycosidase and *Bacillus licheniformis* glycosidase.

The choice of fucosidases for use in the invention depends on the linkage of the fucose to other molecules. The specificities of many α-fucosidases useful in the methods of

the invention are well known to those in the art, and many varieties of fucosidase are also commercially available (Glyko, Novato, CA; PROzyme, San Leandro, CA; Calbiochem-Novabiochem Corp., San Diego, CA; among others). α-Fucosidases of interest include, but are not limited to, α-fucosidases from *Turbo cornutus*, *Charonia lampas*, *Bacillus fulminans*, *Aspergillus niger*, *Clostridium perfringens*, Bovine kidney (Glyko), chicken liver (Tyagarajan et al., 1996, Glycobiology 6:83-93) and α-fucosidase II from *Xanthomonas manihotis* (Glyko, PROzyme). Chicken liver fucosidase is particularly useful for removal of core fucose from N-linked glycans.

B. Glycosyltransferases

Glycosyltransferases catalyze the addition of activated sugars (donor NDP-sugars), in a step-wise fashion, to a protein, glycopeptide, lipid or glycolipid or to the non-reducing end of a growing oligosaccharide. N-linked glycopeptides are synthesized via a transferase and a lipid-linked oligosaccharide donor Dol-PP-$NAG_2Glc_3Man_9$ in an en block transfer followed by trimming of the core. In this case the nature of the "core" saccharide is somewhat different from subsequent attachments. A very large number of glycosyltransferases are known in the art.

The glycosyltransferase to be used in the present invention may be any as long as it can utilize the modified sugar as a sugar donor. Examples of such enzymes include Leloir pathway glycosyltransferases, such as galactosyltransferase, N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase, N-acetylgalactosaminyltransferase, fucosyltransferase, sialyltransferase, mannosyltransferase, xylosyltransferase, glucurononyltransferase and the like.

For enzymatic saccharide syntheses that involve glycosyltransferase reactions, glycosyltransferases can be cloned, or isolated from any source. Many cloned glycosyltransferases are known, as are their polynucleotide sequences. *See, e.g.*, Taniguchi et al., 2002, Handbook of glycosyltransferases and related genes, Springer, Tokyo.

Glycosyltransferase amino acid sequences and nucleotide sequences encoding glycosyltransferases from which the amino acid sequences can be deduced are also found in various publicly available databases, including GenBank, Swiss-Prot, EMBL, and others.

Glycosyltransferases that can be employed in the methods of the invention include, but are not limited to, galactosyltransferases, fucosyltransferases, glucosyltransferases, N-acetylgalactosaminyltransferases, N-acetylglucosaminyltransferases, glucuronyltransferases, sialyltransferases, mannosyltransferases, glucuronic acid transferases, galacturonic acid transferases, and oligosaccharyltransferases. Suitable glycosyltransferases include those obtained from eukaryotes, as well as from prokaryotes.

DNA encoding glycosyltransferases may be obtained by chemical synthesis, by screening reverse transcripts of mRNA from appropriate cells or cell line cultures, by screening genomic libraries from appropriate cells, or by combinations of these procedures. Screening of mRNA or genomic DNA may be carried out using oligonucleotide probes generated from the glycosyltransferases nucleic acid sequence. Probes may be labeled with a detectable label, such as, but not limited to, a fluorescent group, a radioactive atom or a chemiluminescent group in accordance with known procedures and used in conventional hybridization assays. In the alternative, glycosyltransferases nucleic acid sequences may be obtained by use of the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) procedure, with the PCR oligonucleotide primers being produced from the glycosyltransferases nucleic acid sequence. See, U.S. Pat. No. 4,683,195 to Mullis et al. and U.S. Pat. No. 4,683,202 to Mullis.

A glycosyltransferases enzyme may be synthesized in a host cell transformed with a vector containing DNA encoding the glycosyltransferases enzyme. A vector is a replicable DNA construct. Vectors are used either to amplify DNA encoding the glycosyltransferases enzyme and/or to express DNA which encodes the glycosyltransferases enzyme. An expression vector is a replicable DNA construct in which a DNA sequence encoding the glycosyltransferases enzyme is operably linked to suitable control sequences capable of effecting the expression of the glycosyltransferases enzyme in a suitable host. The need for such control sequences will vary depending upon the host selected and the transformation method chosen. Generally, control sequences include a transcriptional promoter, an optional operator sequence to control transcription, a sequence encoding suitable mRNA ribosomal binding sites, and sequences which control the termination of transcription and translation. Amplification vectors do not require expression control domains. All that is needed is the ability to replicate in a host, usually conferred by an origin of replication, and a selection gene to facilitate recognition of transformants.

1. Fucosyltransferases

In some embodiments, a glycosyltransferase used in the method of the invention is a fucosyltransferase. Fucosyltransferases are known to those of skill in the art. Exemplary fucosyltransferases include enzymes, which transfer L-fucose from GDP-fucose to a hydroxy position of an acceptor sugar. Fucosyltransferases that transfer from non-nucleotide sugars to an acceptor are also of use in the present invention.

In some embodiments, the acceptor sugar is, for example, the GlcNAc in a Galβ(1→3,4)GlcNAcβ- group in an oligosaccharide glycoside. Suitable fucosyltransferases for this reaction include the Galβ(1→3,4)GlcNAcβ1-α(1→3,4)fucosyltransferase (FTIII E.C. No. 2.4.1.65), which was first characterized from human milk (see, Palcic, et al., Carbohydrate Res. 190: 1-11 (1989); Prieels, et al., J. Biol. Chem. 256: 10456-10463 (1981); and Nunez, et al., Can. J. Chem. 59: 2086-2095 (1981)) and the Galβ(1→4)GlcNAcβ-αfucosyltransferases (FTIV, FTV, FTVI) which are found in human serum. FTVII (E.C. No. 2.4.1.65), a sialyl α(2→3)Galβ((1→3)GlcNAcβ fucosyltransferase, has also been characterized. A recombinant form of the Galβ(1→3,4) GlcNAcβ-α(1→3,4)fucosyltransferase has also been characterized (see, Dumas, et al., Bioorg. Med. Letters 1: 425-428 (1991) and Kukowska-Latallo, et al., Genes and Development 4: 1288-1303 (1990)). Other exemplary fucosyltransferases include, for example, α1,2 fucosyltransferase (E.C. No. 2.4.1.69). Enzymatic fucosylation can be carried out by the methods described in Mollicone, et al., Eur. J. Biochem. 191: 169-176 (1990) or U.S. Patent No. 5,374,655.

2. Galactosyltransferases

In another group of embodiments, the glycosyltransferase is a galactosyltransferase. Exemplary galactosyltransferases include α(1,3) galactosyltransferases (E.C. No. 2.4.1.151, see, e.g., Dabkowski et al., Transplant Proc. 25:2921 (1993) and Yamamoto et al. Nature 345: 229-233 (1990), bovine (GenBank j04989, Joziasse et al., J. Biol. Chem. 264: 14290-14297 (1989)), murine (GenBank m26925; Larsen et al., Proc. Nat'l. Acad. Sci. USA 86: 8227-8231 (1989)), porcine (GenBank L36152; Strahan et al., Immunogenetics 41: 101-105 (1995)). Another suitable α1,3 galactosyltransferase is that which is involved in synthesis of the blood

group B antigen (EC 2.4.1.37, Yamamoto *et al., J. Biol. Chem.* **265**: 1146-1151 (1990) (human)).

Also suitable for use in the methods of the invention are β(1,4) galactosyltransferases, which include, for example, EC 2.4.1.90 (LacNAc synthetase) and EC 2.4.1.22 (lactose synthetase) (bovine (D'Agostaro et al., Eur. J. Biochem. 183: 211-217 (1989)), human (Masri et al., Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 157: 657-663 (1988)), murine (Nakazawa et al., J. Biochem. 104: 165-168 (1988)), as well as E.C. 2.4.1.38 and the ceramide galactosyltransferase (EC 2.4.1.45, Stahl et al., J. Neurosci. Res. 38: 234-242 (1994)). Other suitable galactosyltransferases include, for example, α1,2 galactosyltransferases (from e.g., Schizosaccharomyces pombe, Chapell et al., Mol. Biol. Cell 5: 519-528 (1994)). For further suitable galactosyltransferases, see Taniguchi et al. (2002, Handbook of Glycosyltransferases and Related Genes, Springer, Tokyo), Guo et al. (2001, Glycobiology, 11(10):813-820), and Breton et al. (1998, J Biochem. 123:1000-1009).

The production of proteins such as the enzyme GalNAc T_{I-XIV} from cloned genes by genetic engineering is well known. See, e.g., U.S. Pat. No. 4,761,371. One method involves collection of sufficient samples, then the amino acid sequence of the enzyme is determined by N-terminal sequencing. This information is then used to isolate a cDNA clone encoding a full-length (membrane bound) transferase which upon expression in the insect cell line Sf9 resulted in the synthesis of a fully active enzyme. The acceptor specificity of the enzyme is then determined using a semiquantitative analysis of the amino acids surrounding known glycosylation sites in 16 different proteins followed by *in vitro* glycosylation studies of synthetic peptides. This work has demonstrated that certain amino acid residues are overrepresented in glycosylated peptide segments and that residues in specific positions surrounding glycosylated serine and threonine residues may have a more marked influence on acceptor efficiency than other amino acid moieties.

3. Sialyltransferases

Sialyltransferases are another type of glycosyltransferase that is useful in the recombinant cells and reaction mixtures of the invention. Examples of sialyltransferases that are suitable for use in the present invention include ST3Gal III (e.g., a rat or human ST3Gal III), ST3Gal IV, ST3Gal I, ST6Gal I, ST3Gal V, ST6Gal II, ST6GalNAc I, ST6GalNAc II, and ST6GalNAc III (the sialyltransferase nomenclature used herein is as described in Tsuji et

al., Glycobiology 6: v-xiv (1996)). An exemplary α(2,3)sialyltransferase referred to as α(2,3)sialyltransferase (EC 2.4.99.6) transfers sialic acid to the non-reducing terminal Gal of a Galβ1→3Glc disaccharide or glycoside. See, Van den Eijnden et al., J. Biol. Chem. 256: 3159 (1981), Weinstein et al., J. Biol. Chem. 257: 13845 (1982) and Wen et al., J. Biol. Chem. 267: 21011 (1992). Another exemplary α2,3-sialyltransferase (EC 2.4.99.4) transfers sialic acid to the non-reducing terminal Gal of the disaccharide or glycoside. see, Rearick et al., J. Biol. Chem. 254: 4444 (1979) and Gillespie et al., J. Biol. Chem. 267: 21004 (1992). Further exemplary enzymes include Gal-β-1,4-GlcNAc α-2,6 sialyltransferase (See, Kurosawa et al. Eur. J. Biochem. 219: 375-381 (1994)).

Preferably, for glycosylation of carbohydrates of glycopeptides the sialyltransferase will be able to transfer sialic acid to the sequence Galβ1,4GlcNAc-, Galβ1,3GlcNAc-, or Galβ1,3GalNAc-, the most common penultimate sequences underlying the terminal sialic acid on fully sialylated carbohydrate structures (*see*, Table 8). α2,8-Sialyltransferases capable of transfering sialic acid to α2,3Galβ1,4GlcNAc are also useful in the methods of the invention.

Table 8. Sialyltransferases which use the Galβ1,4GlcNAc sequence as an acceptor substrate

Sialyltransferase	Source	Sequence(s) formed	Ref.
ST6Gal I	Mammalian	NeuAcα2,6Galβ1,4GlcNAc-	1
ST3Gal III	Mammalian	NeuAcα2,3Galβ1,4GlcNAc- NeuAcα2,3Galβ1,3GlcNAc-	1
ST3Gal IV	Mammalian	NeuAcα2,3Galβ1,4GlcNAc- NeuAcα2,3Galβ1,3GlcNAc-	1
ST6Gal II	Mammalian	NeuAcα2,6Galβ1,4GlcNAc-	
ST6Gal II	*Photobacterium*	NeuAcα2,6Galβ1,4GlcNAc-	2
ST3Gal V	*N. meningitides* *N. gonorrhoeae*	NeuAcα2,3Galβ1,4GlcNAc-	3

1) Goochee et al., Bio/Technology 9: 1347-1355 (1991)
2) Yamamoto et al., J. Biochem. 120: 104-110 (1996)
3) Gilbert et al., J. Biol. Chem. 271: 28271-28276 (1996)

An example of a sialyltransferase that is useful in the claimed methods is ST3Gal III, which is also referred to as α(2,3)sialyltransferase (EC 2.4.99.6). This enzyme catalyzes the transfer of sialic acid to the Gal of a Galβ1,3GlcNAc or Galβ1,4GlcNAc glycoside (see, e.g., Wen et al., J. Biol. Chem. 267: 21011 (1992); Van den Eijnden et al., J. Biol. Chem. 256: 3159 (1991)) and is responsible for sialylation of asparagine-linked oligosaccharides in glycopeptides. The sialic acid is linked to a Gal with the formation of an α-linkage between the two saccharides. Bonding (linkage) between the saccharides is between the 2-position of NeuAc and the 3-position of Gal. This particular enzyme can be isolated from rat liver (Weinstein et al., J. Biol. Chem. 257: 13845 (1982)); the human cDNA (Sasaki et al. (1993) J. Biol. Chem. 268: 22782-22787; Kitagawa & Paulson (1994) J. Biol. Chem. 269: 1394-1401) and genomic (Kitagawa et al. (1996) J. Biol. Chem. 271: 931-938) DNA sequences are known, facilitating production of this enzyme by recombinant expression. In a preferred embodiment, the claimed sialylation methods use a rat ST3Gal III.

An example of a sialyltransferase that is useful in the claimed methods is CST-I from Campylobacter (*see* ,for example, U.S. Pat. No. 6,503744, 6,096,529, and 6,210933 and WO99/49051, and published U.S. Pat. Application 2002/2,042,369). This enzyme catalyzes the transfer of sialic acid to the Gal of a Galβ1,4Glc or Galβ1,3GalNAc. Other exemplary sialyltransferases of use in the present invention include those isolated from Campylobacter jejuni, including the α(2,3) sialyltransferase. *See*, e.g, WO99/49051.

Other sialyltransferases, including those listed in Table 8, are also useful in an economic and efficient large-scale process for sialylation of commercially important glycopeptides. As a simple test to find out the utility of these other enzymes, various amounts of each enzyme (1-100 mU/mg protein) are reacted with asialo-α_1 AGP (at 1-10 mg/ml) to compare the ability of the sialyltransferase of interest to sialylate glycopeptides relative to either bovine ST6Gal I, ST3Gal III or both sialyltransferases. Alternatively, other glycopeptides or glycopeptides, or N-linked oligosaccharides enzymatically released from the peptide backbone can be used in place of asialo-α_1 AGP for this evaluation. Sialyltransferases with the ability to sialylate N-linked oligosaccharides of glycopeptides more efficiently than ST6Gal I are useful in a practical large-scale process for peptide sialylation (as illustrated for ST3Gal III in this disclosure).

4. Other glycosyltransferases

One of skill in the art will understand that other glycosyltransferases can be substituted into similar transferase cycles as have been described in detail for the sialyltransferase. In particular, the glycosyltransferase can also be, for instance, glucosyltransferases, e.g., Alg8 (Stagljov et al., Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 91: 5977 (1994)) or Alg5 (Heesen et al., Eur. J. Biochem. 224: 71 (1994)).

N-acetylgalactosaminyltransferases are also of use in practicing the present invention. Suitable N-acetylgalactosaminyltransferases include, but are not limited to, α(1,3) N-acetylgalactosaminyltransferase, β(1,4) N-acetylgalactosaminyltransferases (Nagata et al., J. Biol. Chem. 267: 12082-12089 (1992) and Smith et al., J. Biol Chem. 269: 15162 (1994)) and peptide N-acetylgalactosaminyltransferase (Homa et al., J. Biol. Chem. 268: 12609 (1993)). Suitable N-acetylglucosaminyltransferases include GnT-I (2.4.1.101, Hull et al., BBRC 176: 608 (1991)), GnT-II, GnT-III (Ihara et al., J. Biochem. 113: 692 (1993)), GnT-IV, GnT-V (Shoreibah et al., J. Biol. Chem. 268: 15381 (1993)) and GnT-VI, O-linked N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase (Bierhuizen et al., Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 89: 9326 (1992)), N-acetylglucosamine-1-phosphate transferase (Rajput et al., Biochem J. 285: 985 (1992), and hyaluronan synthase.

Mannosyltransferases are of use to transfer modified mannose moieties. Suitable mannosyltransferases include α(1,2) mannosyltransferase, α(1,3) mannosyltransferase, α(1,6) mannosyltransferase, β(1,4) mannosyltransferase, Dol-P-Man synthase, OCh1, and Pmt1 (see, Kornfeld et al., Annu. Rev. Biochem. 54: 631-664 (1985)).

Xylosyltransferases are also useful in the present invention. See, for example, Rodgers, et al., Biochem. J., 288:817-822 (1992); and Elbain, et al., U.S. Patent No., 6,168,937.

Other suitable glycosyltransferase cycles are described in Ichikawa et al., JACS 114: 9283 (1992), Wong et al., J. Org. Chem. 57: 4343 (1992), and Ichikawa et al. in CARBOHYDRATES AND CARBOHYDRATE POLYMERS. Yaltami, ed. (ATL Press, 1993).

Prokaryotic glycosyltransferases are also useful in practicing the invention. Such glycosyltransferases include enzymes involved in synthesis of lipooligosaccharides (LOS), which are produced by many gram negative bacteria. The LOS typically have terminal glycan sequences that mimic glycoconjugates found on the surface of human epithelial cells

or in host secretions (Preston et al., Critical Reviews in Microbiology 23(3): 139-180 (1996)). Such enzymes include, but are not limited to, the proteins of the *rfa* operons of species such as *E. coli* and *Salmonella typhimurium*, which include a β1,6 galactosyltransferase and a β1,3 galactosyltransferase (*see, e.g.*, EMBL Accession Nos. M80599 and M86935 (*E. coli*); EMBL Accession No. S56361 (*S. typhimurium*)), a glucosyltransferase (Swiss-Prot Accession No. P25740 (*E. coli*), an β1,2-glucosyltransferase (*rfaJ*)(Swiss-Prot Accession No. P27129 (*E. coli*) and Swiss-Prot Accession No. P19817 (*S. typhimurium*)), and an β1,2-N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase (*rfa*K)(EMBL Accession No. U00039 (*E. coli*). Other glycosyltransferases for which amino acid sequences are known include those that are encoded by operons such as *rfa*B, which have been characterized in organisms such as *Klebsiella pneumoniae, E. coli, Salmonella typhimurium, Salmonella enterica, Yersinia enterocolitica, Mycobacterium leprosum*, and the *rhl* operon of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa.*

Also suitable for use in the present invention are glycosyltransferases that are involved in producing structures containing lacto-N-neotetraose, D-galactosyl-β-1,4-N-acetyl-D-glucosaminyl-β-1,3-D-galactosyl-β-1,4-D-glucose, and the P^k blood group trisaccharide sequence, D-galactosyl-α-1,4-D-galactosyl-β-1,4-D-glucose, which have been identified in the LOS of the mucosal pathogens *Neisseria gonnorhoeae* and *N. meningitidis* (Scholten et al., J. Med. Microbiol. 41: 236-243 (1994)). The genes from *N. meningitidis* and *N. gonorrhoeae* that encode the glycosyltransferases involved in the biosynthesis of these structures have been identified from *N. meningitidis* immunotypes L3 and L1 (Jennings et al., Mol. Microbiol. 18: 729-740 (1995)) and the *N. gonorrhoeae* mutant F62 (Gotshlich, J. Exp. Med. 180: 2181-2190 (1994)). In *N. meningitidis*, a locus consisting of three genes, *lgtA, lgtB* and *lg E*, encodes the glycosyltransferase enzymes required for addition of the last three of the sugars in the lacto-*N*-neotetraose chain (Wakarchuk et al., J. Biol. Chem. 271: 19166-73 (1996)). Recently the enzymatic activity of the *lgtB* and *lgtA* gene product was demonstrated, providing the first direct evidence for their proposed glycosyltransferase function (Wakarchuk et al., J. Biol. Chem. 271(45): 28271-276 (1996)). In *N. gonorrhoeae*, there are two additional genes, *lgtD* which adds β-D-GalNAc to the 3 position of the terminal galactose of the lacto-*N*-neotetraose structure and *lgtC* which adds a terminal α-D-Gal to the lactose element of a truncated LOS, thus creating the P^k blood group antigen structure

(Gotshlich (1994), *supra.*). In *N. meningitidis*, a separate immunotype L1 also expresses the P^k blood group antigen and has been shown to carry an *lgtC* gene (Jennings *et al.*, (1995), *supra.*). *Neisseria* glycosyltransferases and associated genes are also described in USPN 5,545,553 (Gotschlich). Genes for α1,2-fucosyltransferase and α1,3-fucosyltransferase from *Helicobacter pylori* has also been characterized (Martin *et* al., J. Biol. Chem. 272: 21349-21356 (1997)). Also of use in the present invention are the glycosyltransferases of *Campylobacter jejuni* (*see*, Taniguchi et al., 2002, Handbook of glycosyltransferases and related genes, Springer, Tokyo).

B. Sulfotransferases

The invention also provides methods for producing peptides that include sulfated molecules, including, for example sulfated polysaccharides such as heparin, heparan sulfate, carragenen, and related compounds. Suitable sulfotransferases include, for example, chondroitin-6-sulphotransferase (chicken cDNA described by Fukuta et al., J. Biol. Chem. 270: 18575-18580 (1995); GenBank Accession No. D49915), glycosaminoglycan N-acetylglucosamine N-deacetylase/N-sulphotransferase 1 (Dixon et al., Genomics 26: 239-241 (1995); UL18918), and glycosaminoglycan N-acetylglucosamine N-deacetylase/N-sulphotransferase 2 (murine cDNA described in Orellana et al., J. Biol. Chem. 269: 2270-2276 (1994) and Eriksson et al., J. Biol. Chem. 269: 10438-10443 (1994); human cDNA described in GenBank Accession No. U2304).

C. Cell-Bound Glycosyltransferases

In another embodiment, the enzymes utilized in the method of the invention are cell-bound glycosyltransferases. Although many soluble glycosyltransferases are known (see, for example, U.S. Pat. No. 5,032,519), glycosyltransferases are generally in membrane-bound form when associated with cells. Many of the membrane-bound enzymes studied thus far are considered to be intrinsic proteins; that is, they are not released from the membranes by sonication and require detergents for solubilization. Surface glycosyltransferases have been identified on the surfaces of vertebrate and invertebrate cells, and it has also been recognized that these surface transferases maintain catalytic activity under physiological conditions. However, the more recognized function of cell surface glycosyltransferases is for intercellular recognition (Roth, 1990, Molecular Approaches to Supracellular Phenomena,).

Methods have been developed to alter the glycosyltransferases expressed by cells. For example, Larsen et al., Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 86: 8227-8231 (1989), report a genetic approach to isolate cloned cDNA sequences that determine expression of cell surface oligosaccharide structures and their cognate glycosyltransferases. A cDNA library generated from mRNA isolated from a murine cell line known to express UDP-galactose:.β.-D-galactosyl-1,4-N-acetyl-D-glucosaminide α-1,3-galactosyltransferase was transfected into COS-1 cells. The transfected cells were then cultured and assayed for α 1-3 galactosyltransferase activity.

Francisco et al., Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 89: 2713-2717 (1992), disclose a method of anchoring β-lactamase to the external surface of *Escherichia coli*. A tripartite fusion consisting of (i) a signal sequence of an outer membrane protein, (ii) a membrane-spanning section of an outer membrane protein, and (iii) a complete mature β-lactamase sequence is produced resulting in an active surface bound β-lactamase molecule. However, the Francisco method is limited only to prokaryotic cell systems and as recognized by the authors, requires the complete tripartite fusion for proper functioning.

D. Fusion Enzymes

In other exemplary embodiments, the methods of the invention utilize fusion peptides that have more than one enzymatic activity that is involved in synthesis of a desired glycopeptide conjugate. The fusion peptides can be composed of, for example, a catalytically active domain of a glycosyltransferase that is joined to a catalytically active domain of an accessory enzyme. The accessory enzyme catalytic domain can, for example, catalyze a step in the formation of a nucleotide sugar that is a donor for the glycosyltransferase, or catalyze a reaction involved in a glycosyltransferase cycle. For example, a polynucleotide that encodes a glycosyltransferase can be joined, in-frame, to a polynucleotide that encodes an enzyme involved in nucleotide sugar synthesis. The resulting fusion peptide can then catalyze not only the synthesis of the nucleotide sugar, but also the transfer of the sugar moiety to the acceptor molecule. The fusion peptide can be two or more cycle enzymes linked into one expressible nucleotide sequence. In other embodiments the fusion ppeptide includes the catalytically active domains of two or more glycosyltransferases. See, for example, U.S. Patent No. 5,641,668. The modified glycopeptides of the present invention can be readily

designed and manufactured utilizing various suitable fusion peptides (*see*, for example, PCT Patent Application PCT/CA98/01180, which was published as WO 99/31224 on June 24, 1999.)

E. Immobilized Enzymes

In addition to cell-bound enzymes, the present invention also provides for the use of enzymes that are immobilized on a solid and/or soluble support. In an exemplary embodiment, there is provided a glycosyltransferase that is conjugated to a PEG via an intact glycosyl linker according to the methods of the invention. The PEG-linker-enzyme conjugate is optionally attached to solid support. The use of solid supported enzymes in the methods of the invention simplifies the work up of the reaction mixture and purification of the reaction product, and also enables the facile recovery of the enzyme. The glycosyltransferase conjugate is utilized in the methods of the invention. Other combinations of enzymes and supports will be apparent to those of skill in the art.

F. Mutagenesis of Glycosyltransferases

The novel forms of the glycosyltransferases, sialyltransferases, sulfotransferases, and any other enzymes used in the method of the invention can be created using any of the methods described previously, as well as others well known to those in the art. Of particular interest are transferases with altered acceptor specificity and/or donor specificity. Also of interest are enzymes with higher conversion rates and higher stability among others.

The techniques of rational design mutagenesis can be used when the sequence of the peptide is known. Since the sequences as well as many of the tertiary structures of the transferases and glucosidases used in the invention are known, these enzymes are ideal for rational design of mutants. For example, the catalytic site of the enzyme can be mutated to alter the donor and/or acceptor specificity of the enzyme.

The extensive tertiary structural data on the glycosyltransferases and glycosidase hydrolases also make these enzyme idea for mutations involving domain exchanges. Glycosyltransferases and glycosidase hydrolases are modular enzymes (see, Bourne and Henrissat, 2001, Current Opinion in Structural Biology 11:593-600). Glycosyltransferases are divided into two families bases on their structure: GT-A and GT-B. The glycosyltransferases of the GT-A family comprise two dissimilar domains, one involved in nucleotide binding and the other in acceptor binding. Thus, one could conveniently fuse the

DNA sequence encoding the domain from one gene in frame with a domain from a second gene to create a new gene that encodes a protein with a new acceptor/donor specificity. Such exchanges of domains could additionally include the carbohydrate modules and other accessory domains.

The techniques of random mutation and/or directed evolution, as described above, may also be used to create novel forms of the glycosyltransferases and glycosidases used in the invention.

IV. *In vitro* and *in vivo* expression systems

A. Cells for the production of glycopeptides

The action of glycosyltransferases is key to the glycosylation of peptides, thus, the difference in the expression of a set of glycosyltransferases in any given cell type affects the pattern of glycosylation on any given peptide produced in that cell. For a review of host cell dependent glycosylation of peptides, see Kabata and Takasaki, "Structure and Biosynthesis of Cell Surface Carbohydrates," in Cell Surface Carbohydrates and Cell Development, 1991, pp. 1-24, Eds. Minoru Fukuda, CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL.

According to the present disclosure, the type of cell in which the peptide is produced is relevant only with respect to the degree of remodeling required to generate a peptide having desired glycosylation. For example, the number and sequence of enzymatic digestion reactions and the number and sequence of enzymatic synthetic reactions that are required *in vitro* to generate a peptide having desired glycosylation will vary depending on the structure of the glycan on the peptide produced by a particular cell type. While the invention should in no way be construed to be limited to the production of peptides from any one particular cell type including any cell type disclosed herein, a discussion of several cell systems is now presented which establishes the power of the present invention and its independence of the cell type in which the peptides are generated.

In general, and to express a peptide from a nucleic acid encoding it, the nucleic acid must be incorporated into an expression cassette, comprising a promoter element, a terminator element, and the coding sequence of the peptide operably linked between the two. The expression cassette is then operably linked into a vector. Toward this end, adapters or linkers may be employed to join the nucleotide fragments or other manipulations may be

involved to provide for convenient restriction sites, removal of superfluous nucleotides, removal of restriction sites, or the like. For this purpose, *in vitro* mutagenesis, primer repair, restriction, annealing, resubstitutions, e.g., transitions and transversions, may be involved. A shuttle vector has the genetic elements necessary for replication in a cell. Some vectors may be replicated only in prokaryotes, or may be replicated in both prokaryotes and eukaryotes. Such a plasmid expression vector will be maintained in one or more replication systems, preferably two replication systems, that allow for stable maintenance within a yeast host cell for expression purposes, and within a prokaryotic host for cloning purposes. Many vectors with diverse characteristics are now available commercially. Vectors are usually plasmids or phages, but may also be cosmids or mini-chromosomes. Conveniently, many commercially available vectors will have the promoter and terminator of the expression cassette already present, and a multi-linker site where the coding sequence for the peptide of interest can be inserted. The shuttle vector containing the expression cassette is then transformed in *E. coli* where it is replicated during cell division to generate a preparation of vector that is sufficient to transform the host cells of the chosen expression system. The above methodology is well know to those in the art, and protocols by which to accomplish can be found Sambrook et al. (2001, Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, New York).

The vector, once purified from the cells in which it is amplified, is then transformed into the cells of the expression system. The protocol for transformation depended on the kind of the cell and the nature of the vector. Transformants are grown in an appropriate nutrient medium, and, where appropriate, maintained under selective pressure to insure retention of endogenous DNA. Where expression is inducible, growth can be permitted of the yeast host to yield a high density of cells, and then expression is induced. The secreted, mature heterologous peptide can be harvested by any conventional means, and purified by chromatography, electrophoresis, dialysis, solvent-solvent extraction, and the like.

The techniques of molecular cloning are well-known in the art. Further, techniques for the procedures of molecular cloning can be found in Sambrook et al. (2001, Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.); Glover et al., (1985, DNA Cloning: A Practical Approach, Volumes I and II); Gait et al., (1985, Oligonucleotide Synthesis); Hames and Higgins (1985, Nucleic Acid

Hybridization); Hames and Higgins (1984, Transcription And Translation); Freshney et al., (1986, Animal Cell Culture); Perbal, (1986, Immobilized Cells And Enzymes, IRL Press); Perbal,(1984, A Practical Guide To Molecular Cloning); Ausubel et al. (2002, Current Protocols in Molecular Biology, John Wiley & Sons, Inc.).

B. Fungi and yeast

Peptides produced in yeast are glycosylated and the glycan structures present thereon are primarily high mannose structures. In the case of N-glycans, the glycan structures produced in yeast may contain as many as nine or more mannose residues which may or may not contain additional sugars added thereto. An example of the type of glycan on peptides produced by yeast cells is shown in Figure 4, left side. Irrespective of the number of mannose residues and the type and complexity of additional sugars added thereto, N-glycans as components of peptides produced in yeast cells comprise a trimannosyl core structure as shown in Figure 4. When the glycan structure on a peptide produced by a yeast cell is a high mannose structure, it is a simple matter for the ordinary skilled artisan to remove, *in vitro* using available mannosidase enzymes, all of the mannose residues from the molecule except for those that comprise the trimannosyl core of the glycan, thereby generating a peptide having an elemental trimannosyl core structure attached thereto. Now, using the techniques available in the art and armed with the present disclosure, it is a simple matter to enzymatically add, *in vitro*, additional sugar moieties to the elemental trimannosyl core structure to generate a peptide having a desired glycan structure attached thereto. Similarly, when the peptide produced by the yeast cell comprises a high mannose structure in addition to other complex sugars attached thereto, it is a simple matter to enzymatically cleave off all of the additional sugars, including extra mannose residues, to arrive at the elemental trimannosyl core structure. Once the elemental trimannosyl core structure is produced, generation of a peptide having desired glycosylation is possible following the directions provided herein.

By "yeast" is intended ascosporogenous yeasts (Endomycetales), basidiosporogenous yeasts, and yeast belonging to the Fungi Imperfecti (Blastomycetes). The ascosporogenous yeasts are divided into two families, Spermophthoraceae and Saccharomycetaceae. The later is comprised of four subfamilies, *Schizosaccharomycoideae* (e.g., genus *Schizosaccharomyces*), *Nadsonioideae*, *Lipomycoideae*, and *Saccharomycoideae* (e.g., genera

Pichia, Kluyveromyces, and *Saccharomyces*). The basidiosporogenous yeasts include the genera *Leucosporidium, Rhodosporidium, Sporidiobolus, Filobasidium,* and *Filobasidiella.* Yeast belonging to the Fungi Imperfecti are divided into two families, *Sporobolomycetaceae* (e.g., genera *Sporobolomyces, Bullera*) and *Cryptococcaceae* (e.g., genus *Candida*). Of particular interest to the present invention are species within the genera *Saccharomyces, Pichia, Aspergillus, Trichoderma, Kluyveromyces,* especially *K. lactis* and *K. drosophilum, Candida, Hansenula, Schizpsaccaromyces, Yarrowia,* and *Chrysoporium.* Since the classification of yeast may change in the future, for the purposes of this invention, yeast shall be defined as described in Skinner et al., eds. 1980) Biology and Activities of Yeast (Soc. App. Bacteriol. Symp. Series No. 9).

In addition to the foregoing, those of ordinary skill in the art are presumably familiar with the biology of yeast and the manipulation of yeast genetics. See, for example, Bacila et al., eds. (1978, Biochemistry and Genetics of Yeast, Academic Press, New York); and Rose and Harrison. (1987, The Yeasts (2nd ed.) Academic Press, London). Methods of introducing exogenous DNA into yeast hosts are well known in the art. There are a wide variety of methods for transformation of yeast. Spheroplast transformation is taught by Hinnen et al (1978, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 75:1919-1933); Beggs, (1978, Nature 275(5676):104-109); and Stinchcomb et al., (EPO Publication No. 45,573; herein incorporated by reference), Electroporation is taught by Becker and Gaurante, (1991, Methods Enzymol. 194:182-187), Lithium acetate is taught by Gietz et al. (2002, Methods Enzymol. 350:87-96) and Mount et al. (1996, Methods Mol Biol. 53:139-145). For a review of transformation systems of non-*Saccharomyces* yeasts, see Wang et al. (Crit Rev Biotechnol. 2001;21(3):177-218). For general procedures on yeast genetic engineering, see Barr et al., (1989, Yeast genetic engineering , Butterworths, Boston).

In addition to wild-type yeast and fungal cells, there are also strains of yeast and fungi that have been mutated and/or selected to enhance the level of expression of the exogenous gene, and the purity, the post-translational processing of the resulting peptide, and the recovery and purity of the mature peptide. Expression of an exogenous peptide may also be direct to the cell secretory pathway, as illustrated by the expression of insulin (see (Kjeldsen, 2000, Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 54:277-286, and references cited therein). In general, to cause the exogenous peptide to be secreted from the yeast cell, secretion signals derived from

yeast genes may be used, such as those of the genes of the killer toxin (Stark and Boyd, 1986, EMBO J. 5:1995-2002) or of the alpha pheromone (Kurjan and Herskowitz, 1982, Cell 30:933; Brake et al., 1988, Yeast 4:S436).

Regarding the filamentous fungi in general, methods for genetic manipulation can be found in Kinghorn and Turner (1992, Applied Molecular Genetics of Filamentous Fungi, Blackie Academic and Professional, New York). Guidance on appropriate vectors can be found in Martinelli and Kinghorn (1994, Aspergillus : 50 years, Elsevier, Amsterdam).

1. Saccharomyces

In *Saccharomyces*, suitable yeast vectors for use producing a peptide include YRp7 (Struhl et al., Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 76: 1035-1039, 1978), YEp13 (Broach et al., Gene 8: 121-133, 1979), POT vectors (Kawasaki et al, U.S. Pat. No. 4,931,373, which is incorporated by reference herein), pJDB249 and pJDB219 (Beggs, Nature 275:104-108, 1978) and derivatives thereof. Preferred promoters for use in yeast include promoters for yeast glycolytic gene expression (Hitzeman et al., J. Biol. Chem. 255: 12073-12080, 1980; Alber and Kawasaki, J. Mol. Appl. Genet. 1: 419-434, 1982; Kawasaki, U.S. Pat. No. 4,599,311) or alcohol dehydrogenase genes (Young et al., in Genetic Engineering of Microorganisms for Chemicals, Hollaender et al., (eds.), p. 355, Plenum, New York, 1982; Ammerer, Meth. Enzymol. 101: 192-201, 1983), and the ADH2-4^{c} promoter (Russell et al., Nature 304: 652-654, 1983; Irani and Kilgore, U.S. patent application Ser. No. 07/784,653, CA 1,304,020 and EP 284 044, which are incorporated herein by reference). The expression units may also include a transcriptional terminator. A preferred transcriptional terminator is the TPI1 terminator (Alber and Kawasaki, ibid.).

Examples of such yeast-bacteria shuttle vectors include Yep24 (Botstein et al. (1979) Gene 8:17-24; pC1 (Brake et al. (1984) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 81:4642-4646), and Yrp17 (Stnichomb et al. (1982) J. Mol. Biol. 158:157). Additionally, a plasmid expression vector may be a high or low copy number plasmid, the copy number generally ranging from about 1 to about 200. In the case of high copy number yeast vectors, there will generally be at least 10, preferably at least 20, and usually not exceeding about 150 copies of the vector in a single host. Depending upon the heterologous peptide selected, either a high or low copy number vector may be desirable, depending upon the effect of the vector and the recombinant

peptide on the host. See, for example, Brake et al. (1984) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 81:4642-4646. DNA constructs of the present invention can also be integrated into the yeast genome by an integrating vector. Examples of such vectors are known in the art. See, for example, Botstein et al. (1979) Gene 8:17-24.

The selection of suitable yeast and other microorganism hosts for the practice of the present invention is within the skill of the art. Of particular interest are the *Saccharomyces* species *S. cerevisiae*, *S. carlsbergensis*, *S. diastaticus*, *S. douglasii*, *S. kluyveri*, *S. norbensis*, and *S. oviformis*. When selecting yeast host cells for expression of a desired peptide, suitable host cells may include those shown to have, inter alia, good secretion capacity, low proteolytic activity, and overall vigor. Yeast and other microorganisms are generally available from a variety of sources, including the Yeast Genetic Stock Center, Department of Biophysics and Medical Physics, University of California, Berkeley, Calif.; and the American Type Culture Collection, Manassas VA. For a review, see Strathern et al., eds. (1981, The Molecular Biology of the Yeast *Saccharomyces*, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.)

Methods of introducing exogenous DNA into yeast hosts are well known in the art.

2. Pichia

The use of *Pichia methanolica* as a host cell for the production of recombinant peptides is disclosed in PCT Applications WO 97/17450, WO 97/17451, WO 98/02536, and WO 98/02565. DNA molecules for use in transforming *P. methanolica* are commonly prepared as double-stranded, circular plasmids, which are preferably linearized prior to transformation. For peptide production in *P. methanolica*, it is preferred that the promoter and terminator in the plasmid be that of a *P. methanolica* gene, such as a *P. methanolica* alcohol utilization gene (AUG1 or AUG2). Other useful promoters include those of the dihydroxyacetone synthase (DHAS), formate dehydrogenase (FMD), and catalase (CAT) genes, as well as those disclosed in U.S. Patent No. 5,252,726. To facilitate integration of the DNA into the host chromosome, it is preferred to have the entire expression segment of the plasmid flanked at both ends by host DNA sequences. A preferred selectable marker for use in *Pichia methanolica* is a *P. methanolica* ADE2 gene, which encodes phosphoribosyl-5-aminoimidazole carboxylase (AIRC; EC 4.1.1.21), which allows ade2 host cells to grow in the absence of adenine. For large-scale, industrial processes where it is desirable to minimize

the use of methanol, host cells in which both methanol utilization genes (AUG1 and AUG2) are deleted are preferred. For production of secreted peptides, host cells deficient in vacuolar protease genes (PEP4 and PRB1) are preferred. Electroporation is used to facilitate the introduction of a plasmid containing DNA encoding a peptide of interest into *P. methanolica* cells. It is preferred to transform *P. methanolica* cells by electroporation using an exponentially decaying, pulsed electric field having a field strength of from 2.5 to 4.5 kV/cm, preferably about 3.75 kV/cm, and a time constant (t) of from 1 to 40 milliseconds, most preferably about 20 milliseconds. For a review of the use of *Pichia pastoris* for large-scale production of antibody fragments, see Fischer et al., (1999, Biotechnol Appl Biochem. 30 (Pt 2):117-120).

3. *Aspergillus*

Methods to express peptides in *Aspergillus* spp. are well known in the art, including but not limited to those described in Carrez et al., 1990, Gene 94:147-154; Contreras, 1991, Bio/Technology 9:378-381; Yelton et al., 1984, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 81:1470-1474; Tilburn et al., 1983, Gene 26:205-221; Kelly and. Hynes, 1985, EMBO J. 4:475-479; Ballance et al., 1983, Biochem. Biophys. Res. Comm. 112:284-289; Buxton et al ., 1985, Gene 37:207-214, and U.S. Pat. No. 4,935,349, incorporated by reference herein in its entirety. Examples of promoters useful in *Aspergillus* are found in U.S. Patent No. 5,252,726. Strains of *Aspergillus* useful for peptide expression are found in U.S. Patent No. 4,935,349. Commercial production of exogenous peptides is available from Novoenzymes for *Aspergillus niger* and *Aspergillus oryzae*.

4. *Trichoderma*

Trichoderma has certain advantages over other species of recombinant host cells for expression of desired peptides. This organism is easy to grow in large quantities and it has the ability to glycosylate and efficiently secrete high yields of recombinant mammalian peptides into the medium, making isolation of the peptide relatively easy. In addition, the glycosylation pattern on expressed peptides is more similar to that on human peptides than peptides expressed in many other systems. However, there are still differences in the glycan structures on expressed peptides from these cells. For example, terminal sialic acid residues are important to the therapeutic function of a peptide in a mammalian system, since the presence of these moieties at the end of the glycan structure impedes peptide clearance from

the mammalian bloodstream. The mechanism behind the increased biologic half-life of sialylated molecules is believed to lie in their decreased recognition by lectins (Drickamer, 1988, J. Biol. Chem. 263:9557-9560). However, in general fungal cells do not add terminal sialic acid residues to glycans on peptides, and peptides synthesized in fungal cells are therefore asialic. According to the present invention, this deficiency can be remedied using the *in vitro* glycan remodeling methods of the invention described in detail elsewhere herein.

Trichoderma species useful as hosts for the production of peptides to be remodeled include *T. reesei*, such as QM6a, ALKO2442 or CBS383.78 (Centraalbureau voor Schimmelcultures, Oosterstraat 1, PO Box 273, 3740 AG Baarn, The Netherlands, or, ATCC13631 (American Type Culture Collection, Manassas VA, 10852, USA, type); *T. viride* (such as CBS189.79 (det. W. Gams); *T. longibrachiatum*, such as CBS816.68 (type); *T. pseudokoningii* (such as MUCL19358; Mycotheque de l'Universite Catholique de Louvain); *T. saturnisporum* CBS330.70 (type); *T. harzianum* CBS316.31 (det. W. Gams); *T. virgatum* (*T. pseudokoningii*) ATCC24961. Most preferably, the host is *T. reesei* and more preferably, it is *T. reesei* strains QM9414 (ATCC 26921), RUT-C-30 (ATCC 56765), and highly productive mutants such as VTT-D-79125, which is derived from QM9414 (Nevalainen, Technical Research Centre of Finland Publications 26, (1985), Espoo, Finland).

The transformation of *Trichoderma* with DNA is performed using any technique known in the art, including that taught in European patent No. EP0244234, Harkki (1989, Bio/Technology 7:596-601) and Uusitalo (1991, J. Biotech. 17:35-50). Culture of *Trichoderma* is supported by previous extensive experience in industrial scale fermentation techniques; for example, see Finkelstein, 1992, Biotechnology of Filamentous Fungi: Technology and Products, Butterworth-Heinemann, publishers, Stoneham, Mass.

5. *Kluyveromyces*

Yeast belonging to the genus *Kluyveromyces* have been used as host organisms for the production of recombinant peptides. Peptides produced by this genus of yeast are, in particular, chymosin (European Patent 96 430), thaumatin (European Patent 96 910), albumin, interleukin-1β, TPA, TIMP (European Patent 361 991) and albumin derivatives having a therapeutic function (European Patent 413 622). Species of particular interest in the genus *Kluyveromyces* include *K. lactis*.

Methods of expressing recombinant peptides in *Kluyvermyces* spp. are well known in the art. Vectors for the expression and secretion of human recombinant peptides in *Kluyvermyces* are known in the art (Yeh, J. Cell. Biochem. Suppl. 14C:68, Abst. H402; Fleer, 1990, Yeast 6 (Special Issue):S449) as are procedures for transformation and expression of recombinant peptides (Ito et al., 1983, J. Bacteriol. 153:163-168; van den Berg, 1990, Bio/Technology 8:135-139; U.S. Patent No. 5,633,146, WO8304050A1, EP0096910, EP0241435, EP0301670, EP0361991, all of which are incorporated by reference herein in their entirety). For a review of genetic manipulation of *Kluyveromyces lactis* linear DNA plasmids by gene targeting and plasmid shuffles, see Schaffrath et al. (1999, FEMS Microbiol Lett. 178(2):201-210).

6. *Chrysoporium*

The fungal genus *Chrysoporium* has recently been used to expression of foreign recombinant peptides. A description of the proceedures by which one of skill in the art can use *Chrysoporium* can be used to express foreign peptides is found in WO 00/20555 (incorporated by reference herein in its entirety). Species particularly suitable for expression system include, but are not limited to, *C. botryoides, C. carmichaelii, C. crassitunicatum, C. europae, C. evolceannui, F. fastidium, C. filiforme, C. gerogiae, C. globiferum, C. globiferum* var. *articulatum, C. globiferum* var. *niveum, C. hirundo, C. hispanicum, C. holmii, C. indicum, C. inops, C. keratinophilum, C. kreiselii, C. kuzurovianum, C. lignorum, C. lobatum, C. lucknowense, C. lucknowense* Garg 27K, *C. medium, C. medium* var. *spissescens, C. mephiticum, C. merdarium, C. merdarium var. roseum, C. minor, C. pannicola, C. parvum, C. parvum* var. *crescens, C. pilosum, C. peodomerderium, C. pyriformis, C. queenslandicum, C. sigleri, C. sulfureum, C. synchronum, C. tropicum, C. undulatum, C. vallenarense, C. vespertilium,* and *C. zonatum.*

7. Others

Methods for transforming *Schwanniomyces* are disclosed in European Patent 394 538. Methods for transforming *Acremonium chrysogenum* are disclosed by U.S. Pat. No. 5,162,228. Methods for transforming *Neurospora* are disclosed by U.S. Pat. No. 4,486,533. Also know is an expression system specifically for *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* (European

Patent 385 391). General methods for expressing peptides in fission yeast, *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* can be found in Giga-Hama and Kumagai (1997, Foreign gene expression in fission yeast : *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*, Springer, Berlin).

C. Mammalian systems

As discussed above, mammalian cells typically produce a heterogeneous mixture of N-glycan structures which vary with respect to the number and arrangement of additional sugars attached to the trimannosyl core. Typically, mammalian cells produce peptides having a complex glycan structure, such as that shown in Figure 3, right side. Using the methods of the present invention, a peptide produced in a mammalian cell may be remodeled *in vitro* to generate a peptide having desired glycosylation by first identifying the primary glycan structure and then determining which sugars must be removed in order to remodel the glycan structure. As discussed herein, the sugars to be removed will determine which cleavage enzymes will be used and thus, the precise steps of the remodeling process will vary depending on the primary glycan structure used as the initial substrate. A sample scheme for remodeling a glycan structure commonly produced in mammalian cells is shown in Figure 2. The N-glycan biosynthetic pathway in mammalian cells has been well characterized (reviewed in Moremen, 1994, Glycobiology 4:113-125). Many of the enzymes necessary for glycan synthesis have been identified, and mutant cell lines defective in this enzymatic pathway have been isolated including the Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cell lines Lec23 (defective in alpha-glucosidase I) and Lec18 (novel GlcNAc-TVIII). The glycosylation pattern of peptides produced by these mutant cells is altered relative to normal CHO cells. As discussed herein, the glycosylation defects in these and other mutant cells can be exploited for the purposes of producing a peptide that lacks a complex glycan structure. For example, peptides produced by Lec23 cells lack sialic acid residues, and thus require less enzymatic manipulation in order to reduce the glycan structure to an elemental trimannosyl core or to Man3GlcNAc4. Thus, peptides produced in these cells can serve as preferred substrates for glycan remodeling. One of ordinary skill in the art could isolate or identify other glycosylation-defective cell lines based on known methods, for example the method described in Stanley et al., 1990, Somatic Cell Mol. Genet., 16: 211-223. Use of glycosylation-defective cell lines, those identified and as yet unidentified, is included in the

invention for the purpose of generating preferred peptide substrates for the remodeling processes described herein.

Expression vectors useful for expressing exogenous peptides in mammalian cells are numerous, and are well known to those in the art. Many mammalian expression vectors are now commercially available from companies, including Novagen, Inc (Madison, WI), Gene Therapy Systems (San Diego, CA), Promega (Madison, WI), ClonTech Inc. (Palo Alto, CA), and Stratagene (La Jolla, CA), among others.

There are several mammalian cell lines that are particularly adept at expressing exogenous peptides. Typically mammalian cell lines originate from tumor cells extracted from mammals that have become immortalized, that is to say, they can replicate in culture essentially indefinitely. These cell lines include, but are not limited to, CHO (Chinese hamster ovary, e.g. CHO-K1; ATCC No. CCL 61) and variants thereof, NS0 (mouse myeloma), BNK, BHK 570 (ATCC No. CRL 10314), BHK (ATCC No. CRL 1632), Per.C6™ (immortalized human cells, Crucell N.V., Leiden, The Netherlands), COS-1 (ATCC No. CRL 1650), COS-7 (ATCC No. CRL 1651), HEK 293, mouse L cells, T lymphoid cell lines, BW5147 cells and MDCK (Madin-Darby canine kidney), HeLa (human), A549 (human lung carcinoma), 293 (ATCC No. CRL 1573; Graham et al., 1977, Gen. Virol. 36:59-72), BGMK (Buffalo Green Monkey kidney), Hep-2 (human epidermoid larynx carcinoma), LLC-MK_2 (African Green Monkey Kidney), McCoy, NCI-H292 (human pulmonary mucoepidermoid carcinoma tube), RD (rhabdomyosarcoma), Vero (African Green Monkey kidney), HEL (human embryonic lung), Human Fetal Lung-Chang, MRC5 (human embryonic lung), MRHF (human foreskin), and WI-38 (human embryonic lung). In some cases, the cells in which the therapeutic peptide is expressed may be cells derived from the patient to be treated, or they may be derived from another related or unrelated mammal. For example, fibroblast cells may be isolated from the mammal's skin tissue, and cultured and transformed *in vitro*. This technology is commercially available from Transkaryotic Therapies, Inc. (Cambridge, MA). Almost all currently used cell lines are available from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, Manassas, VA) and BioWhittaker (Walkersville, Maryland).

Mammalian cells may be transformed with DNA using any one of several techniques that are well known to those in the art. Such techniques include, but are not limited to,

calcium phosphate transformation (Chen and Okayama, 1988 ; Graham and van der Eb, 1973; Corsaro and Pearson, 1981, Somatic Cell Genetics 7:603), Diethylaminoethyl (DEAE)-dextran transfection (Fujita et al., 1986; Lopata et al., 1984; Selden et al., 1986,), electroporation (Neumann et al., 1982, ; Potter, 1988, ; Potter et al., 1984, ; Wong and Neuman, 1982), cationic lipid reagent transfection (Elroy-Stein and Moss, 1990; Feigner et al., 1987; Rose et al., 1991; Whitt et al., 1990; Hawley-Nelson et al., 1993, Focus 15:73; Ciccarone et al., 1993, Focus 15:80), retroviral (Cepko et al., 1984; Miller and Baltimore, 1986; Pear et al., 1993; Austin and Cepko, 1990; Bodine et al., 1991; Fekete and Cepko, 1993; Lemischka et al., 1986; Turner et al., 1990; Williams et al., 1984; Miller and Rosman, 1989, BioTechniques 7:980-90; Wang and Finer, 1996, Nature Med. 2:714-6), polybrene (Chaney et al, 1986; Kawai and Nishizawa, 1984), microinjection (Capecchi, 1980), and protoplast fusion (Rassoulzadegan et al., 1982; Sandri-Goldin et al., 1981; Schaffer, 1980), among others. In general, see Sambrook et al. (2001, Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, New York) and Ausubel et al. (2002, Current Protocols in Molecular Biology, John Wiley & Sons, New York) for transformation techniques.

Recently the baculovirus system, popular for transformation of insect cells, has been adapted for stable transformation of mammalian cells (see, for review, Koat and Condreay, 2002, Trends Biotechnol. 20:173-180, and references cited therein). The production of recombinant peptides in cultured mammalian cells is disclosed, for example, in U.S. Pat. Nos. 4,713,339, 4,784,950; 4,579,821; and 4,656,134. Several companies offer the services of transformation and culture of mammalian cells, including Cell Trends, Inc. (Middletown, MD). Techniques for culturing mammalian cells are well known in the art, and further found in Hauser et al. (1997, Mammalian Cell Biotechnology, Walter de Gruyer, Inc., Hawthorne, NY), and Sambrook et al. (2001, Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual, Cold Spring Harbor and references cited therein.

D. Insect

Insect cells and in particular, cultured insect cells, express peptides having N-linked glycan structures that are rarely sialylated and usually comprise mannose residues which may or may not have additional fucose residues attached thereto. Examples of the types of glycan structures present on peptides produced in cultured insect cells are shown in Figure 6, and

mannose glycans thereof. In this situation, there may or may not be a core fucose present, which if present, may be linked to the glycan via several different linkages.

Baculovirus-mediated expression in insect cells has become particularly well-established for the production of recombinant peptides (Altmann et al., 1999, Glycoconjugate J. 16:109-123). With regard to peptide folding and post-translational processing, insect cells are second only to mammalian cell lines. However, as noted above, N-glycosylation of peptides in insect cells differs in many respects from N-glycosylation in mammalian cells particularly in that insect cells frequently generate truncated glycan structures comprising oligosaccharides containing just three or sometimes only two mannose residues. These structures may be additionally substituted with fucose residues.

According to the present invention, a peptide produced in an insect cell may be remodeled *in vitro* to generate a peptide with desired glycosylation by first optionally removing any substituted fucose residues using an appropriate fucosidase enzyme. In instances where the peptide comprises an elemental trimannosyl core structure following the removal of fucose residues, then all that is required is the *in vitro* addition of the appropriate sugars to the trimannosyl core structure to generate a peptide having desired glycosylation. In instances when the peptide might contain only two mannose residues in the glycan structure following removal of any fucose residues, a third mannose residue may be added using a mannosyltransferase enzyme and a suitable donor molecule such as GDP-mannose, and thereafter the appropriate residues are added to generate a peptide having desired glycosylation. Optionally, monoantennary glycans can also be generated from these species.

Protocols for the use of baculovirus to transform insect cells are well known to those in the art. Several books have been published which provide the procedures to use the baculovirus system to express peptides in insect cells. These books include, but are not limited to, Richardson (Baculovirus Expression Protocols, 1998, Methods in Molecular Biology, Vol 39, Humana Pr), O'Reilly et al. (1994, Baculovirus Expression Vectors : A Laboratory Manual, Oxford Univ Press), and King and Possee (1992, The Baculovirus Expression System : A Laboratory Guide, Chapman & Hall). In addition, there are also publications such as Lucklow (1993, Curr. Opin. Biotechnol. 4:564-572) and Miller (1993, Curr. Opin. Genet. Dev. 3:97-101).

Many patents have also been issued that related to systems for baculoviral expression of foreign proteins. These patents include, but are not limited to, U.S. Patent No. 6,210,966 (Culture medium for insect cells lacking glutamine and containing ammonium salt), U.S. Patent No. 6,090,584 (Use of BVACs (BaculoVirus Artificial Chromosomes) to produce recombinant peptides), U.S. Patent No. 5,871,986 (Use of a baculovirus to express a recombinant nucleic acid in a mammalian cell), U.S. Patent No. 5,759,809 (Methods of expressing peptides in insect cells and methods of killing insects), U.S. Patent No. 5,753,220 (Cysteine protease gene defective baculovirus, process for its production, and process for the production of economic peptide by using the same), U.S. Patent No. 5,750,383 (Baculovirus cloning system), U.S. Patent No. 5,731,182 (Non-mammalian DNA virus to express a recombinant nucleic acid in a mammalian cell), U.S. Patent No. 5,728,580 (Methods and culture media for inducing single cell suspension in insect cell lines), U.S. Patent No. 5,583,023 (Modified baculovirus, its preparation process and its application as a gene expression vector), U.S. Patent No. 5,571,709 (Modified baculovirus and baculovirus expression vectors), U.S. Patent No. 5,521,299 (Oligonucleotides for detection of baculovirus infection), U.S. Patent No. 5,516,657 (Baculovirus vectors for expression of secretory and membrane-bound peptides), U.S. Patent No. 5,475,090 (Gene encoding a peptide which enhances virus infection of host insects), U.S. Patent No. 5,472,858 (Production of recombinant peptides in insect larvae), U.S. Patent No. 5,348,886 (Method of producing recombinant eukaryotic viruses in bacteria), U.S. Patent No. 5,322,774 (Prokaryotic leader sequence in recombinant baculovirus expression system), U.S. Patent No. 5,278,050 (Method to improve the efficiency of processing and secretion of recombinant genes in insect systems), U.S. Patent No. 5,244,805 (Baculovirus expression vectors), U.S. Patent No. 5,229,293 (Recombinant baculovirus), U.S. Patent No. 5,194,376 (Baculovirus expression system capable of producing recombinant peptides at high levels), U.S. Patent No. 5,179,007 (Method and vector for the purification of recombinant peptides), U.S. Patent No. 5,169,784 (Baculovirus dual promoter expression vector), U.S. Patent No. 5,162,222 (Use of baculovirus early promoters for expression of recombinant nucleic acids in stably transformed insect cells or recombinant baculoviruses), U.S. Patent No. 5,155,037 (Insect signal sequences useful to improve the efficiency of processing and secretion of recombinant nucleic acids in insect systems), U.S. Patent No. 5,147,788 (Baculovirus vectors and methods

of use), U.S. Patent No. 5,110,729 (Method of producing peptides using baculovirus vectors in cultured cells), U.S. Patent No. 5,077,214 (Use of baculovirus early promoters for expression of recombinant genes in stably transformed insect cells), U.S. Patent No. 5,023,328 (Lepidopteran AKH signal sequence), and U.S. Patent Nos. 4,879,236 and 4,745,051 (Method for producing a recombinant baculovirus expression vector). All of the aforementioned patents are incorporated in their entirety by reference herein.

Insect cell lines of several different species origin are currently being used for peptide expression, and these lines are well known to those in the art. Insect cell lines of interest include, but are not limited to, dipteran and lepidopteran insect cells in general, Sf9 and variants thereof (fall armyworm *Spodoptera frugiperda), Estigmene acrea, Trichoplusia ni, Bombyx mori, Malacosoma disstri.* drosophila lines Kc1 and SL2 among others, and mosquito.

E. Plants

Plant cells as peptide producers present a different set of issues. While N-linked glycans produced in plants comprise a trimannosyl core structure, this pentasaccharide backbone may comprise several different additional sugars as shown in Figure 5. For example, in one instance, the trimannosyl core structure is substituted by a β1,2 linked xylose residue and an α1,3 linked fucose residue. In addition, plant cells may also produce a Man5GlcNAc2 structure. Peptides produced in plant cells are often highly antigenic as a result of the presence of the core α1,3 fucose and xylose on the glycan structure, and are rapidly cleared from the blood stream when introduced into a mammal due to the absence of terminal sialic acid residues. Therefore, unless these peptides are remodeled using the methods provided herein, they are generally considered to be unsuitable as therapeutic agents in mammals. While some monoclonal antibodies expressed in plant cells were found to be non-immunogenic in mouse, it is likely that the glycan chains were not immunogenic because they were buried in the Fc region in these antibodies (Chargelegue et al., 2000, Transgenic Res. 9(3):187-194).

Following the directions provided herein, it is now possible to generate a peptide produced in a plant cell wherein an increased number of the glycan structures present thereon comprise an elemental trimannosyl core structure, or a Man3GlcNAc4 structure. This is

accomplished by cleaving off any additional sugars *in vitro* using a combination of appropriate glycosidases, including fucosidases, until the elemental trimannosyl core structure or the Man3GlcNAc4 structure is arrived at. These cleavage reactions should also include removal of any fucose or xylose residues from the structures in order to diminish the antigenicity of the final peptide when introduced into a mammal. Plant cells having mutations that inhibit the addition of fucose and xylose residues to the trimannosyl core structure are known in the art (von Schaewen et al., 1993, Plant Physiology 102:1109-1118). The use of these cells to produce peptides having glycans which lack fucose and xylose is contemplated by the invention. Upon production of the elemental trimannosyl core or Man3GlcNAc4 structure, additional sugars may then be added thereto to arrive at a peptide having desired glycosylation that is therefore suitable for therapeutic use in a mammal.

Transgenic plants are considered by many to be the expression system of choice for pharmaceutical peptides. Potentially, plants can provide a cheaper source of recombinant peptides. It has been estimated that the production costs of recombinant peptides in plants could be between 10 to 50 times lower that that of producing the same peptide in *E. coli.* While there are slight differences in the codon usage in plants as compared to animals, these can be compensated for by adjusting the recombinant DNA sequences (see, Kusnadi et al., 1997, Biotechnol. Bioeng. 56:473-484; Khoudi et al., 1999, Biotechnol. Bioeng. 135-143; Hood et al., 1999, Adv. Exp. Med. Biol. 464:127-147). In addition, peptide synthesis, secretion and post-translational modification are very similar in plants and animals, with only minor differences in plant glycosylation (see, Fischer et al., 2000, J. Biol. Regul. Homest. Agents 14: 83-92). Then, products from transgenic plants are also less likely to be contaminated by animal pathogens, microbial toxins and oncogenic sequences.

The expression of recombinant peptides in plant cells is well known in the art. In addition to transgenic plants, peptides can also produced in transgenic plant cell cultures (Lee et al., 1997, Mol. Cell. 7:783-787), and non-transgenic plants inoculated with recombinant plant viruses. Several books have been published that describe protocols for the genetic transformation of plant cells: Potrykus (1995, Gene transfer to plants, Springer, New York), Nickoloff (1995, Plant cell electroporation and electrofusion protocols, Humana Press, Totowa, New York) and Draper (1988, Plant genetic transformation, Oxford Press, Boston).

Several methods are currently used to stably transform plant cells with recombinant genetic material. These methods include, but are not limited to, *Agrobacterium* transformation (Bechtold and Pelletier, 1998; Escudero and Hohn, 1997; Hansen and Chilton, 1999; Touraev et al., 1997), biolistics (microprojectiles) (Finer et al., 1999; Hansen and Chilton, 1999; Shilito, 1999), electroporation of protoplasts (Fromm et al., 1985, Ou-Lee et al., 1986; Rhodes et al., 1988; Saunders et al., 1989; Trick et al., 1997), polyethylene glycol treatment (Shilito, 1999; Trick et al., 1997), *in planta* mircroinjection (Leduc et al., 1996; Zhou et al., 1983), seed imbibition (Trick et al., 1997), laser beam (1996), and silicon carbide whiskers (Thompson et al., 1995; U.S. Patent Appln. No. 20020100077, incorporated by reference herein in its entirety).

Many kinds of plants are amenable to transformation and expression of exogenous peptides. Plants of particular interest to express the peptides to be used in the remodeling method of the invention include, but are not limited to, *Arabidopsis thalliana*, rapeseed (*Brassica* spp.; Ruiz and Blumwald, 2002, Planta 214:965-969)), soybean (*Glycine max*), sunflower (Helianthus unnuus), oil palm (Elaeis guineeis), groundnut (peanut, *Arachis hypogaea*; Deng et al., 2001, Cell. Res. 11:156-160), coconut (*Cocus nucifera*), castor (*Ricinus communis*), safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius*), mustard (Brassica spp. and Sinapis alba), coriander, (*Coriandrum sativum*), squash (*Cucurbita maxima*; Spencer and Snow, 2001, Heredity 86(Pt 6):694-702), linseed/flax (*Linum usitatissimum*; Lamblin et al., 2001, Physiol Plant 112:223-232), Brazil nut (*Bertholletia excelsa*), jojoba (*Simmondsia chinensis*), maize (Zea mays; Hood et al., 1999, Adv. Exp. Med. Biol. 464:127-147; Hood et al., 1997, Mol. Breed. 3:291-306; Petolino et al., 2000, Transgenic Research 9:1-9), alfalfa (Khoudi et al., 1999, Biotechnol. Bioeng. 64:135-143), tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*; Wright et al., Transgenic Res. 10:177-181; Frigerio et al., 2000, Plant Physiol. 123:1483-1493; Cramer et al., 1996, Ann. New York Acad. Sci. 792:62-8-71; Cabanes-Macheteau et al., 1999, Glycobiology 9:365-372; Ruggiero et al., 2000, FEBS Lett. 469:132-136), canola (Bai et al., 2001, Biotechnol. Prog. 17:168-174; Zhang et al., 2000, J. Anim. Sci. 78:2868-2878)), potato (Tacket et al., 1998, J. Infect. Dis. 182:302-305; Richter et al., 2000, Nat. Biotechnol. 18:1167-1171; Chong et al., 2000, Transgenic Res. 9:71-78), alfalfa (Wigdorovitz et al., 1999, Virology 255:347-353), Pea (Pisum sativum; Perrin et al., 2000, Mol. Breed. 6:345-352), rice (*Oryza sativa* ; Stoger et al., 2000, Plant Mol. Biol. 42:583-590), cotton

(*Gossypium hirsutum;* Kornyeyev et al., 2001, Physiol Plant 113:323-331), barley (*Hordeum vulgare*; Petersen et al., 2002, Plant Mol Biol 49:45-58); wheat (*Triticum* spp.; Pellegrineschi et al., 2002, Genome 45:421-430) and bean (*Vicia* spp.; Saalbach et al., 1994, Mol Gen Genet 242:226-236).

If expression of the recombinant nucleic acid is desired in a whole plant rather than in cultured cells, plant cells are first transformed with DNA encoding the peptide, following which, the plant is regenerated. This involves tissue culture procedures that are typically optimized for each plant species. Protocols to regenerate plants are already well known in the art for many species. Furthermore, protocols for other species can be developed by one of skill in the art using routine experimentation. Numerous laboratory manuals are available that describe procedures for plant regeneration, including but not limited to, Smith (2000, Plant tissue culture : techniques and experiments, Academic Press, San Diego), Bhojwani and Razdan (1996, Plant tissue culture : theory and practice, Elsevier Science Pub., Amsterdam), Islam (1996, Plant tissue culture, Oxford & IBH Pub. Co., New Delhi, India), Dodds and. Roberts (1995, Experiments in plant tissue culture, New York : Cambridge University Press, Cambridge England), Bhojwani (Plant tissue culture : applications and limitations, Elsevier, Amsterdam, 1990), Trigiano and Gray (2000, Plant tissue culture concepts and laboratory exercises,. CRC Press, Boca Raton, Fla), and Lindsey (1991, Plant tissue culture manual : fundamentals and applications, Kluwer Academic, Boston).

While purifying recombinant peptides from plants may potentially be costly, several systems have been developed to minimize these costs. One method directs the synthesized peptide to the seed endosperm from where it can easily extracted (Wright et al., 2001, Transgenic Res. 10:177-181, Guda et a., 2000, Plant Cell Res. 19:257-262; and U.S. Patent No. 5,767,379, which is incorporated by reference herein in its entirety). An alternative approach is the co-extraction of the recombinant peptide with conventional plant products such as starch, meal or oil. In oil-seed rape, a fusion peptide of oleosin-hurudin when expressed in the plant, attaches to the oil body of the seed, and can be extracted from the plant seed along with the oil (Parmenter, 1995, Plant Mol. Biol. 29:1167-1180; U.S. Patent Nos. 5,650,554, 5,792,922, 5,948,682 and 6,288,304, and US application 2002/0037303, all of which are incorporated in their entirely by reference herein). In a variation on this approach, the oleosin is fused to a peptide having affinity for the exogenous co-expressed

peptide of interest (U.S. Patent No. 5,856,452, incorporated by reference herein in its entirety).

Expression of recombinant peptides in plant plastids, such as the chloroplast, generates peptides having no glycan structures attached thereto, similar to the situation in prokaryotes. However, the yield of such peptides is vastly greater when expressed in these plant cell organelles, and thus this type of expression system may have advantages over other systems. For a general review on the technology for plastid expression of exogenous peptides in higher plants, see Hager and Beck (2000, Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol. 54:302-310, and references cited therein). Plastid expression has been particularly successful in tobacco (see, for example, Staub et al., 2000, Nat. Biotechnol. 18:333-338).

F. Transgenic animals

Introduction of a recombinant DNA into the fertilized egg of an animal (e.g., a mammal) may be accomplished using any number of standard techniques in transgenic animal technology. See, e.g., Hogan et al., Manipulating the Mouse Embryo: A Laboratory Manual, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y., 1986; and U.S. Pat. No. 5,811,634, which is incorporated by reference herein in its entirety. Most commonly, the recombinant DNA is introduced into the embryo by way of pronuclear microinjection (Gordon et al., 1980, PNAS 77:7380-7384; Gordon and Ruddle, 1981, Science 214:1244-1246; Brinster et al., 1981, Cell 27:223-231; Costantini and Lacy, 1981, Nature 294:92-94). Microinjection has the advantage of being applicable to a wide variety of species. Preimplantation embryos may also be transformed with retroviruses (Jaenisch and Mintz, 1974, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 71:1250-1254; Jaenisch et al., 1976, Hamatol Bluttransfus. 19:341-356; Stuhlmann et al., 1984, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 81:7151-7155). Retroviral mediated transformation has the advantage of adding single copies of the recombinant nucleic acid to the cell, but it produces a high degree of mosaicism. Most recently, embryonic stem cell-mediated techniques have been used (Gossler et al., 1986, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.. 83:9065-9069), transfer of entire chromosomal segments (Lavitrano et al., 1989, Cell 57:717-723), and gamete transfection in conjunction with *in vitro* fertilization (Lavitrano et al., 1989, Cell 57:717-723) have also been used. Several books of laboratory procedures have been published disclosing these techniques: Cid-Arregui and García-Carrancá (1998, Microinjection and Transgenesis : Strategies and Protocols, Springer,

Berlin), Clarke (2002, Transgenesis Techniques : Principles and Protocols, Humana Press, Totowa, NJ), and Pinkert (1994, Transgenic Animal Technology : A Laboratory Handbook, Academic Press, San Diego).

Once the recombinant DNA is introduced into the egg, the egg is incubated for a short period of time and is then transferred into a pseudopregnant animal of the same species from which the egg was obtained (Hogan et al., supra). In the case of mammals, typically 125 eggs are injected per experiment, approximately two-thirds of which will survive the procedure. Twenty viable eggs are transferred into a pseudopregnant mammal, four to ten of which will develop into live progeny. Typically, 10-30% of the progeny (in the case of mice) carry the recombinant DNA.

While the entire animal can be used as an expression system for the peptides of the invention, in a preferred embodiment, the exogenous peptide accumulates in products of the animal, from which it can be harvested without injury to the animal. In preferred embodiments, the exogenous peptide accumulates in milk, eggs, hair, blood, and urine.

If the recombinant peptide is to be accumulated in the milk of the animal, suitable mammals are ruminants, ungulates, domesticated mammals, and dairy animals. Particularly preferred animals are goats, sheep, camels, cows, pigs, horses, oxen, and llamas. Methods for generating transgenic cows that accumulate a recombinant peptide in their milk are well known: see, Newton (1999, J. Immunol. Methods 231:159-167), Ebert et al. (1991, Biotechnology 9: 835-838), and U.S. Patent Nos. 6,210,736, 5,849,992, 5,843,705, 5,827,690, 6,222,094, all of which are incorporated herein by reference in their entirety. The generation of transgenic mammals that produce a desired recombinant peptide is commercially available from GTC Biotherapeutics, Framingham, MA.

If the recombinant peptide is to be accumulated in eggs, suitable birds include, but are not limited to, chickens, geese, and turkeys. Other animals of interest include, but are not limited to, other species of avians, fish, reptiles and amphibians. The introduction of recombinant DNA to a chicken by retroviral transformation is well known in the art: Thoraval et al. (1995, Transgenic Research 4:369-376), Bosselman et al., (1989, Science 243: 533-535), Petropoulos et al. (1992, J. Virol. 66: 3391-3397), U.S. Patent No. 5,162,215, incorporated by reference herein in its entirety. Successful transformation of chickens with recombinant DNA also been achieved wherein DNA is introduced into blastodermal cells

and blastodermal cells so transfected are introduced into the embryo: Brazolot et al. (1991, Mol. Reprod. Dev. 30: 304-312), Fraser, et al. (1993, Int. J. Dev. Biol. 37: 381-385), and Petitte et al. (1990, Development 108: 185-189). High throughput technology has been developed to assess whether a transgenic chicken expresses the desired peptide (Harvey et al., 2002, Poult. Sci. 81:202-212, U.S. Patent No. 6,423,488, incorporated by reference herein in its entirety). Using retroviral transformation of chicken with a recombinant DNA, exogenous beta-lactamase was accumulated in the egg white of the chicken (Harvey et al., 2002, Nat. Biotechnol. 20(4):396-399). The production of chickens producing exogenous peptides in egg is commercially available from AviGenics, Inc., Athens GA.

G. Bacteria

Recombinantly expressed peptides produced in bacteria are not generally glycosylated. However, bacteria systems capable of glycosylating peptides are becoming evident and therefore it is likely that glycosylated recombinant peptides may be produced in bacteria in the future.

Numerous bacterial expression systems are known in the art. Preferred bacterial species include, but are not limited to, *E.coli.* and *Bacillus* species.

The expression of recombinant peptides in *E. coli* is well known in the art. Protocols for *E. coli*-based expression systems are found in U.S. Appln No. 20020064835, U.S. Patent Nos. 6,245,539, 5,606,031, 5,420,027, 5,151,511, and RE33,653, among others. Methods to transform bacteria include, but are not limited to, calcium chloride (Cohen et al., 1972, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.. 69:2110-2114; Hanahan, 1983, J. Mol. Biol. 166:557-580; Mandel and Higa, 1970, J. Mol. Biol. 53:159-162) and electroporation (Shigekawa and Dower, 1988, Biotechniques 6:742-751), and those described in Sambrook et al., 2001 (supra). For a review of laboratory protocols on microbial transformation and expression systems, see Saunders and Saunders (1987, Microbial Genetics Applied to Biotechnology : Principles and Techniques of Gene Transfer and Manipulation, Croom Helm, London), Pühler (1993, Genetic Engineering of Microorganisms, Weinheim, New York), Lee et al., (1999, Metabolic Engineering, Marcel Dekker, New York), Adolph (1996, Microbial Genome Methods, CRC Press, Boca Raton), and Birren and Lai (1996, Nonmammalian Genomic Analysis : A Practical Guide, Academic Press, San Diego),

For a general review on the literature for peptide expression in *E. coli* see Balbas (2001, Mol. Biotechnol. 19:251-267). Several companies now offer bacterial strains selected for the expression of mammalian peptides, such as the Rosetta™ strains of *E. coli* (Novagen, inc., Madison, WI; with enhanced expression of eukaryotic codons not normally used in bacteria cells, and enhanced disulfide bond formation),

H. Cell engineering

It will be apparent from the present disclosure that the more uniform the starting material produced by a cell, the more efficient will be the generation *in vitro* of large quantities of peptides having desired glycosylation. Thus, the genetic engineering of host cells to produce uniformly glycosylated peptides as starting material for the *in vitro* enzymatic reactions disclosed herein, provides a significant advantage over using a peptide starting material having a heterogeneous set of glycan structures attached thereto. One preferred peptide starting material for use in the present invention is a peptide having primarily glycan molecules which consist solely of an elemental trimannosyl core structure. Another preferred starting material is Man3GlcNAc4. Following the remodeling process, the preferred peptides will give rise to the greatest amount of peptides having desired glycosylation, and thus improved clinical efficacy. However, other glycan starting material is also suitable for use in the methods described herein, in that for example, high mannose glycans may be easily reduced, *in vitro*, to elemental trimannosyl core structures using a series of mannosidases. As described elsewhere herein, other glycan starting material may also be used, provided it is possible to cleave off all extraneous sugar moieties so that the elemental trimannosyl core structure or Man3GlcNAc4 is generated. Thus, the purpose of using genetically engineered cells for the production of the peptides of the present invention is to generate peptides having as uniform as possible a glycan structure attached thereto, wherein the glycan structure can be remodeled *in vitro* to generate a peptide having desired glycosylation. This will result in a dramatic reduction in production costs of these peptides. Since the glycopeptides produced using this methodology will predominantly have the same N-linked glycan structure, the post-production modification protocol can be standardized and optimized to produce a greater batch-to-batch consistency of final product. As a result, the final completed-chain products may be less heterogeneous than those presently available. The products will have an improved biological half-life and bioactivity as compared to the

products of the prior art. Alternatively, if desired, the invention can be used to introduce limited and specific heterogeneity, e.g., by choosing reaction conditions that result in differential addition of sugar moieties.

Preferably, though not as a rigid requirement, the genetically engineered cell is one which produces peptides having glycan structures comprised primarily of an elemental trimannosyl core structure or Man3GlcNAc4. At a minimum, the proportion of these preferred structures produced by the genetically engineered cell must be enough to yield a peptide having desired glycosylation following the remodeling protocol.

In general, any eukaryotic cell type can be modified to become a host cell of the present invention. First, the glycosylation pattern of both endogenous and recombinant glycopeptides produced by the organism are determined in order to identify suitable additions/deletions of enzymatic activities that result in the production of elemental trimannosyl core glycopeptides or Man3GlcNAc4 glycopeptides. This will typically entail deleting activities that use trimannosyl glycopeptides as substrates for a glycosyltransferase reaction and inserting enzymatic activities that degrade more complex N-linked glycans to produce shorter chains. In addition, genetically engineered cells may produce high mannose glycans, which may be cleaved by mannosidase to produce desired starting glycan structures. The mannosidase may be active *in vivo* in the cell (i.e., the cell may be genetically engineered to produce them), or they may be used in *in vitro* post production reactions.

Techniques for genetically modifying host cells to alter the glycosylation profile of expressed peptides are well-known. See, e.g., Altmann et al. (1999, Glycoconjugate J. 16: 109-123), Ailor et al. (2000, Glycobiology 10(8): 837-847), Jarvis et al., (*In vitro*gen Conference, March, 1999, abstract), Hollister and Jarvis, (2001, Glycobiology 11(1): 1-9), and Palacpac et al., (1999, PNAS USA 96: 4697), Jarvis et al., (1998. Curr. Opin. Biotechnol. 9:528-533), Gerngross (U.S. Patent Publication No. 20020137134), all of which disclose techniques to "mammalianize" insect or plant cell expression systems by transfecting insect or plant cells with glycosyltransferase genes.

Techniques also exist to genetically alter the glycosylation profile of peptides expressed in *E. coli*. *E. coli* has been engineered with various glycosyltransferases from the bacteria *Neisseria meningitidis* and *Azorhizobium* to produce oligosaccharides *in vivo* (Bettler et al., 1999, Glycoconj. J. 16:205-212). *E. coli* which has been genetically engineered to

over-express *Neisseria meningitidis* β1,3 N acetyl glucosaminyltransferase lgtA gene will efficiently glycosylate exogenous lactose (Priem et al., 2002, Glycobiology 12:235-240).

Fungal cells have also been genetically modified to produce exogenous glycosyltransferases (Yoshida et al., 1999, Glycobiology, 9(1):53-58; Kalsner et al., 1995, Glycoconj. J. 12:360-370; Schwientek and Ernst, 1994, Gene 145(2):299-303; Chiba et al, 1995, Biochem J. 308:405-409).

Thus, in one aspect, the present invention provides a cell that glycosylates a glycopeptide population such that a proportion of glycopeptides produced thereby have an elemental trimannosyl core or a Man3GlcNAc4 structure. Preferably, the cell produces a peptide having a glycan structure comprised solely of an elemental trimannosyl core. At a minimum, the proportion of peptides having an elemental trimannosyl core or a Man3GlcNAc4 structure is enough to yield peptides having desired glycosylation following the remodeling process. The cell has introduced into it one or more heterologous nucleic acid expression units, each of which may comprise one or more nucleic acid sequences encoding one or more peptides of interest. The natural form of the glycopeptide of interest may comprise one or more complex N-linked glycans or may simply be a high mannose glycan.

The cell may be any type of cell and is preferably a eukaryotic cell. The cell may be a mammalian cell such as human, mouse, rat, rabbit, hamster or other type of mammalian cell. When the cell is a mammalian cell, the mammalian cell may be derived from or contained within a non-human transgenic mammal where the cell in the mammal encodes the desired glycopeptide and a variety of glycosylating and glycosidase enzymes as necessary for the production of desired glycopeptide molecules. In addition, the cell may be a fungal cell, preferably, a yeast cell, or the cell may be an insect or a plant cell. Similarly, when the cell is a plant cell, the plant cell may be derived from or contained within a transgenic plant, wherein the plant encodes the desired glycopeptide and a variety of glycosylating and glycosidase enzymes as are necessary for the production of desired glycopeptide molecules.

In some embodiments the host cell may be a eukaryotic cell expressing one or more heterologous glycosyltransferase enzymes and/or one or more heterologous glycosidase enzymes, wherein expression of a recombinant glycopeptide in the host cell results in the production of a recombinant glycopeptide having an elemental trimannosyl core as the primary glycan structure attached thereto.

In some embodiments the heterologous glycosyltransferase enzyme useful in the cell may be selected from a group consisting of any known glycosyltransferase enzyme included for example, in the list of Glycosyltransferase Families available in Taniguchi et al. (2002, Handbook of Glycosyltransferases and Related Genes, Springer, New York).

In other embodiments, the heterologous glycosylase enzyme may be selected from a group consisting of mannosidase 1, mannosidase 2, mannosidase 3, and other mannosidases, including, but not limited to, microbial mannosidases. Additional disclosure regarding enzymes useful in the present invention is provided elsewhere herein.

In yet other embodiments, the host cell may be a eukaryotic cell wherein one or more endogenous glycosyltransferase enzymes and/or one or more endogenous glycosidase enzymes have been inactivated such that expression of a recombinant glycopeptide in the host cell results in the production of a recombinant glycopeptide having an elemental trimannosyl core as the primary glycan structure attached thereto.

In additional embodiments, the host cell may express heterologous glycosyltransferase enzymes and/or glycosidase enzymes while at the same time one or more endogenous glycosyltransferase enzymes and/or glycosidase enzymes are inactivated. Endogenous glycosyltransferase enzymes and/or glycosidase enzymes may be inactivated using any technique known to those skilled in the art including, but not limited to, antisense techniques and techniques involving insertion of nucleic acids into the genome of the host cell. In some embodiments, the endogenous enzymes may be selected from a group consisting of GnT-I, a selection of mannosidases, xylosyltransferase, core α1,3 fucosyltransferase, serine/threonine O-mannosyltransferases, and the like.

Alternatively, an expression system that naturally glycosylates peptides such that the N-linked glycans are predominantly the trimannosyl core type, or the Man3GlcNAc4 type, can be exploited. An example of a cell type that produces the trimannosyl core is Sf9 cells. Other such expression systems can be identified by analyzing glycopeptides that are naturally or recombinantly expressed in cells and selecting those which exhibit the desired glycosylation characteristics. The invention should be construed to include any and all such cells for the production of the peptides of the present invention.

V. Purification of glycan remodeled and/or glycoconjugated peptides

If the modified glycoprotein is produced intracellularly or secreted, as a first step, the particulate debris, either host cells, lysed fragments, is removed, for example, by centrifugation or ultrafiltration; optionally, the protein may be concentrated with a commercially available protein concentration filter, followed by separating the peptide variant from other impurities by one or more steps selected from immunoaffinity chromatography, ion-exchange column fractionation (*e.g.*, on diethylaminoethyl (DEAE) or matrices containing carboxymethyl or sulfopropyl groups), chromatography on Blue-Sepharose, CM Blue-Sepharose, MONO-Q, MONO-S, lentil lectin-Sepharose, WGA-Sepharose, Con A-Sepharose, Ether Toyopearl, Butyl Toyopearl, Phenyl Toyopearl, or protein A Sepharose, SDS-PAGE chromatography, silica chromatography, chromatofocusing, reverse phase HPLC (RP-HPLC), gel filtration using, *e.g.*, Sephadex molecular sieve or size-exclusion chromatography, chromatography on columns that selectively bind the peptide, and ethanol, pH or ammonium sulfate precipitation, membrane filtration and various techniques.

Modified peptides produced in culture are usually isolated by initial extraction from cells, enzymes, etc., followed by one or more concentration, salting-out, aqueous ion-exchange, or size-exclusion chromatography steps. Additionally, the modified glycoprotein may be purified by affinity chromatography. Then, HPLC may be employed for final purification steps.

A protease inhibitor, *e.g.*, phenylmethylsulfonylfluoride (PMSF) may be included in any of the foregoing steps to inhibit proteolysis and antibiotics may be included to prevent the growth of adventitious contaminants.

Within another embodiment, supernatants from systems which produce the modified peptide of the invention are first concentrated using a commercially available protein concentration filter, for example, an Amicon or Millipore Pellicon ultrafiltration unit. Following the concentration step, the concentrate may be applied to a suitable purification matrix. For example, a suitable affinity matrix may comprise a ligand for the peptide, a lectin or antibody molecule bound to a suitable support. Alternatively, an anion-exchange resin may be employed, for example, a matrix or substrate having pendant DEAE groups. Suitable matrices include acrylamide, agarose, dextran, cellulose, or other types commonly employed

in protein purification. Alternatively, a cation-exchange step may be employed. Suitable cation exchangers include various insoluble matrices comprising sulfopropyl or carboxymethyl groups. Sulfopropyl groups are particularly preferred.

Then, one or more RP-HPLC steps employing hydrophobic RP-HPLC media, *e.g.*, silica gel having pendant methyl or other aliphatic groups, may be employed to further purify a peptide variant composition. Some or all of the foregoing purification steps, in various combinations, can also be employed to provide a homogeneous modified glycoprotein.

The modified peptide of the invention resulting from a large-scale fermentation may be purified by methods analogous to those disclosed by Urdal *et al., J. Chromatog.* **296**: 171 (1984). This reference describes two sequential, RP-HPLC steps for purification of recombinant human IL-2 on a preparative HPLC column. Alternatively, techniques such as affinity chromatography may be utilized to purify the modified glycoprotein.

VI. Preferred Peptides and Nucleic Acids Encoding Preferred Peptides

The present invention includes isolated nucleic acids encoding various peptides and proteins, and similar molecules or fragments thereof. The invention should not be construed to be limited in any way solely to the use of these peptides in the methods of the invention, but rather should be construed to include any and all peptides presently available or which become available to those in the art. In addition, the invention should not be construed to include only one particular nucleic acid or amino acid sequence for the peptides listed herein, but rather should be construed to include any and all variants, homologs, mutants, etc. of each of the peptides. It should be noted that when a particular peptide is identified as having a mutation or other alteration in the sequence for that peptide, the numbering of the amino acids which identify the alteration or mutation is set so that the first amino acid in the mature peptide sequence is amino acid no. 1, unless otherwise stated herein.

Preferred peptides include, but are not limited to human granulocyte colony stimulating factor (G-CSF), human interferon alpha (IFN-alpha), human interferon beta (IFN-beta), human Factor VII (Factor VII), human Factor IX (Factor IX), human follicle stimulating hormone (FSH), human erythropoietin (EPO), human granulocyte/macrophage colony stimulating factor (GM-CSF), human interferon gamma (IFN-gamma), human alpha-1-protease inhibitor (also known as alpha-1-antitrypsin or alpha-1-trypsin inhibitor; A-1-PI),

glucocerebrosidase, human tissue-type activator (TPA), human interleukin-2 (IL-2), human Factor VIII (Factor VIII), a 75 kDa tumor necrosis factor receptor fused to a human IgG immunoglobulin Fc portion, commercially known as ENBREL™ or ETANERCEPT™ (chimeric TNFR), human urokinase (urokinase), a Fab fragment of the human/mouse chimeric monoclonal antibody that specifically binds glycoprotein IIb/ IIIa and the vitronectin alpha$_v$ beta$_3$ receptor, known commercially as REOPRO™ or ABCIXIMAB (chimeric anti-glycoprotein IIb/IIIa), a mouse/human chimeric monoclonal antibody that specifically binds human HER2, known commercially as HERCEPTIN™ (chimeric anti-HER2), a human/mouse chimeric antibody that specifically binds the A antigenic site or the F protein of respiratory syncytial virus commercially known as SYNAGIS™ or PALIVIZUMAB (chimeric anti-RSV), a chimeric human/mouse monoclonal antibody that specifically binds CD20 on human B-cells, known commercially as RITUXAN™ or RITUXAMAB (chimeric anti-CD20), human recombinant DNase (DNase), a chimeric human/mouse monoclonal antibody that specifically binds human tumor necrosis factor, known commercially as REMICADE™ or INFLIXIMAB (chimeric anti-TNF), human insulin, the surface antigen of a hepatitis B virus (adw subtype; HBsAg), and human growth hormone (HGH), alpha-galactosidase A (Fabryzyme™), α-Iduronidase (Aldurazyme™), antithrombin (antithrombin III, AT-III), human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG), interferon omega, and the like.

The isolated nucleic acid of the invention should be construed to include an RNA or a DNA sequence encoding any of the above-identified peptides of the invention, and any modified forms thereof, including chemical modifications of the DNA or RNA which render the nucleotide sequence more stable when it is cell free or when it is associated with a cell. As a non-limiting example, oligonucleotides which contain at least one phosphorothioate modification are known to confer upon the oligonucleotide enhanced resistance to nucleases. Specific examples of modified oligonucleotides include those which contain phosphorothioate, phosphotriester, methyl phosphonate, short chain alkyl or cycloalkyl intersugar linkages, or short chain heteroatomic or heterocyclic intersugar ("backbone") linkages. In addition, oligonucleotides having morpholino backbone structures (U.S. Patent No: 5,034,506) or polyamide backbone structures (Nielsen et al., 1991, Science 254: 1497) may also be used.

Chemical modifications of nucleotides may also be used to enhance the efficiency with which a nucleotide sequence is taken up by a cell or the efficiency with which it is expressed in a cell. Any and all combinations of modifications of the nucleotide sequences are contemplated in the present invention.

The present invention should not be construed as being limited solely to the nucleic and amino acid sequences disclosed herein. As described in more detail elsewhere herein, once armed with the present invention, it is readily apparent to one skilled in the art that other nucleic acids encoding the peptides of the present invention can be obtained by following the procedures described herein (*e.g.*, site-directed mutagenesis, frame shift mutations, and the like), and procedures that are well-known in the art.

Also included are isolated nucleic acids encoding fragments of peptides, wherein the peptide fragments retain the desired biological activity of the peptide. In addition, although exemplary nucleic acids encoding preferred peptides are disclosed herein in relation to specific SEQ ID NOS, the invention should in no way be construed to be limited to any specific nucleic acid disclosed herein. Rather, the invention should be construed to include any and all nucleic acid molecules having a sufficient percent identity with the sequences disclosed herein such that these nucleic acids also encode a peptide having the desired biological activity disclosed herein. Also contemplated are isolated nucleic acids that are shorter than full length nucleic acids, wherein the biological activity of the peptide encoded thereby is retained. Methods to determine the percent identity between one nucleic acid and another are disclosed elsewhere herein as are assays for the determination of the biological activity of any specific preferred peptide.

Also as disclosed elsewhere herein, any other number of procedures may be used for the generation of derivative, mutant, or variant forms of the peptides of the present invention using recombinant DNA methodology well known in the art such as, for example, that described in Sambrook et al. (1989, Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, New York) and Ausubel et al. (1997, Current Protocols in Molecular Biology, Green & Wiley, New York). Procedures for the introduction of amino acid changes in a peptide or polypeptide by altering the DNA sequence encoding the peptide are well known in the art and are also described in Sambrook et al. (1989, supra); Ausubel et al. (1997, supra).

The invention includes a nucleic acid encoding a G-CSF, IFN-alpha, IFN-beta, Factor VII, Factor IX, FSH, EPO, GM-CSF, IFN-gamma, A-1-PI, glucocerebrosidase, TPA, IL-2, Factor VIII, chimeric TNFR, urokinase, chimeric anti-glycoprotein IIb/IIa, chimeric anti-HER2, chimeric anti-RSV, chimeric anti-CD20, DNase, chimeric anti-TNF , human insulin, HBsAg, and HGH, wherein a nucleic acid encoding a tag peptide is covalently linked thereto. That is, the invention encompasses a chimeric nucleic acid wherein the nucleic acid sequence encoding a tag peptide is covalently linked to the nucleic acid encoding a peptide of the present invention. Such tag peptides are well known in the art and include, for instance, green fluorescent protein (GFP), myc, myc-pyruvate kinase (myc-PK), His_6, maltose binding protein (MBP), an influenza virus hemagglutinin tag polypeptide, a flag tag polypeptide (FLAG), and a glutathione-S-transferase (GST) tag polypeptide. However, the invention should in no way be construed to be limited to the nucleic acids encoding the above-listed tag peptides. Rather, any nucleic acid sequence encoding a peptide which may function in a manner substantially similar to these tag peptides should be construed to be included in the present invention.

The nucleic acid comprising a nucleic acid encoding a tag peptide can be used to localize a peptide of the present invention within a cell, a tissue, and/or a whole organism (e.g., a mammalian embryo), detect a peptide of the present invention secreted from a cell, and to study the role(s) of the peptide in a cell. Further, addition of a tag peptide facilitates isolation and purification of the "tagged" peptide such that the peptides of the invention can be produced and purified readily.

The invention includes the following preferred isolated peptides: G-CSF, IFN-alpha, IFN-beta, Factor VII, Factor IX, FSH, EPO, GM-CSF, IFN-gamma, A-1-PI, glucocerebrosidase, TPA, IL-2, Factor VIII, chimeric TNFR, urokinase, chimeric anti-glycoprotein IIb/IIIa, chimeric anti-HER2, chimeric anti-RSV, chimeric anti-CD20, DNase, chimeric anti-TNF, human insulin, HBsAg, HGH, alpha-galactosidase A, , α-Iduronidase, antithrombin III, hCG, and interferon omega, and the like.

The present invention should also be construed to encompass "derivatives," "mutants", and "variants" of the peptides of the invention (or of the DNA encoding the same) which derivatives, mutants, and variants are peptides which are altered in one or more amino acids (or, when referring to the nucleotide sequence encoding the same, are altered in one or

more base pairs) such that the resulting peptide (or DNA) is not identical to the sequences recited herein, but has the same biological property as the peptides disclosed herein, in that the peptide has biological/biochemical properties of G-CSF, IFN-alpha, IFN-beta, Factor VII, Factor IX, FSH, EPO, GM-CSF, IFN-gamma, A-1-PI, glucocerebrosidase, TPA, IL-2, Factor VIII, chimeric TNFR, urokinase, chimeric anti-glycoprotein IIb/IIIa, chimeric anti-HER2, chimeric anti-RSV, chimeric anti-CD20, DNase, chimeric anti-TNF, human insulin, HBsAg, and HGH.

Further included are fragments of peptides that retain the desired biological activity of the peptide irrespective of the length of the peptide. It is well within the skill of the artisan to isolate smaller than full length forms of any of the peptides useful in the invention, and to determine, using the assays provided herein, which isolated fragments retain a desired biological activity and are therefore useful peptides in the invention.

A biological property of a protein of the present invention should be construed to include, but not be limited to include the ability of the peptide to function in the biological assay and environments described herein, such as reduction of inflammation, elicitation of an immune response, blood-clotting, increased hematopoietic output, protease inhibition, immune system modulation, binding an antigen, growth, alleviation of treatment of a disease, DNA cleavage, and the like.

A. G-CSF

The present invention encompasses a method for the modification of the glycan structure on G-CSF. G-CSF is well known in the art as a cytokine produced by activated T-cells, macrophages, endothelial cells, and stromal fibroblasts. G-CSF primarily acts on the bone marrow to increase the production of inflammatory leukocytes, and further functions as an endocrine hormone to initiate the replenishment of neutrophils consumed during inflammatory functions. G-CSF also has clinical applications in bone marrow replacement following chemotherapy.

A remodeled G-CSF peptide may be administered to a patient selected from the group consisting of a non-myeloid cancer patient receiving myelosuppressive chemotherapy, a patient having Acute Myeloid Leukemia (AML) receiving induction or consolidation chemotherapy, a non-myeloid cancer patient receiving a bone marrow transplant, a patient

undergoing peripheral blood progenitor cell collection, a patient having severe chronic neutropenia, and a patient having persistent neutropenia and also having advanced HIV infection. Preferably, the patient is a human patient.

While G-CSF has been shown to be an important and useful compound for therapeutic applications in mammals, especially humans, present methods for the production of G-CSF from recombinant cells results in a product having a relatively short biological life, an inaccurate glycosylation pattern that could potentially lead to immunogenicity, loss of function, and an increased need for both larger and more frequent doses in order to achieve the same effect, and the like.

G-CSF has been isolated and cloned, the nucleic acid and amino acid sequences of which are presented as SEQ ID NO:1 and SEQ ID NO:2, respectively (Figure 58A and 58B, respectively). The present invention encompasses a method for modifying G-CSF, particularly as it relates to the ability of G-CSF to function as a potent and functional biological molecule. The skilled artisan, when equipped with the present disclosure and the teachings herein, will readily understand that the present invention provides compositions and methods for the modification of G-CSF.

The present invention further encompasses G-CSF variants, as well known in the art. As an example, but in no way meant to be limiting to the present invention, a G-CSF variant has been described in U.S. Patent No. 6,166,183, in which a G-CSF comprising the natural complement of lysine residues and further linked to one or two polyethylene glycol molecules is described. Additionally, U.S. Patent Nos. 6,004,548, 5,580,755, 5,582,823, and 5,676,941 describe a G-CSF variant in which one or more of the cysteine residues at position 17, 36, 42, 64, and 74 are replaced by alanine or alternatively serine. U.S. Patent No. 5,416,195 describes a G-CSF molecule in which the cysteine at position 17, the aspartic acid at position 27, and the serines at positions 65 and 66 are substituted with serine, serine, proline, and proline, respectively. Other variants are well known in the art, and are described in, for example, U.S. Patent No. 5,399,345.

The expression and activity of a modified G-CSF molecule of the present invention can be assayed using methods well known in the art, and as described in, for example, U.S. Patent No. 4,810,643. As an example, activity can be measured using radio-labeled thymidine uptake assays. Briefly, human bone marrow from healthy donors is subjected to a

density cut with Ficoll-Hypaque (1.077 g/ml, Pharmacia, Piscataway, NJ) and low density cells are suspended in Iscove's medium (GIBCO, La Jolla, CA) containing 10% fetal bovine serum, glutamine and antibiotics. About 2 X 10^4 human bone marrow cells are incubated with either control medium or the G-CSF or the present invention in 96-well flat bottom plates at about 37° C in 5% CO_2 in air for about 2 days. Cultures are then pulsed for about 4 hours with 0.5 μCi/well of ^{3}H-thymidine (New England Nuclear, Boston, Mass.) and uptake is measured as described in, for example, Ventua, et al.(1983, Blood 61:781). An increase in ^{3}H-thymidine incorporation into human bone marrow cells as compared to bone marrow cells treated with a control compound is an indication of a active and viable G-CSF compound.

B. IFN alpha, IFN beta and IFN omega

The present invention further encompasses a method for the remodeling and modification of IFN alpha, IFN beta and IFN omega. IFN alpha is part of a family of approximately twenty peptides of approximately 18kDa in weight. IFN omega is very similar in structure and function to IFN alpha. IFN omega is useful for treatment of hepatitis C virus infection when an immune response to IFN alpha is mounted in the host rendering that treatment ineffective. Antibodies raised against IFN alpha do not cross-react with IFN omega. Thus, treatment of hepatitis C may continue using IFN omega when IFN alpha therapy is no longer possible.

IFN alpha, omega, and IFN beta, collectively known as the Type I interferons, bind to the same cellular receptor and elicit similar responses. Type I IFNs inhibit viral replication, increase the lytic potential of NK cells, modulate MHC molecule expression, and inhibit cellular proliferation, among other things. Type I IFN has been used as a therapy for viral infections, particularly hepatitis viruses, and as a therapy for multiple sclerosis.

Current compositions of Type I IFN are, as described above, useful compounds for both the modulation of aberrant immunological responses and as a therapy for a variety of diseases. However, they are hampered by decreased potency and function, and a limited half-life in the body as compared to natural cytokines comprising the natural complement of glycosylation.

A remodeled interferon-alpha peptide may be administered to a patient selected from the group consisting of a patient having hairy cell leukemia, a patient having malignant

melanoma, a patient having follicular lymphoma, a patient having condylomata acuminata, a patient having AIDS-related Kaposi's sarcoma, a patient having Hepatitis C, a patient having Hepatitis B, a patient having a human papilloma virus infection, a patient having Chronic Myeloid Leukemia (CML), a patient having chronic phase Philadelphia chromosome (Ph) positive Chronic Myelogenous Leukemia, a patient having non-Hodgkin's lymphoma (NHL), a patient having lymphoma, a patient having bladder cancer, and a patient having renal cancer. Preferably, the patient is a human patient.

A remodeled interferon-beta peptide may be administered to a patient selected from the group consisting of a patient having multiple sclerosis (MS), a patient having Hepatitis B, a patient having Hepatitis C, a patient having human papilloma virus infection, a patient having breast cancer, a patient having brain cancer, a patient having colorectal cancer, a patient having pulmonary fibrosis, and a patient having rheumatoid arthritis. Preferably, the patient is a human patient.

A remodeled interferon-omega peptide may be administered to a patient selected from the group consisting of a patient having hairy cell leukemia, a patient having malignant melanoma, a patient having follicular lymphoma, a patient having condylomata acuminata, a patient having AIDS-related Kaposi's sarcoma, a patient having Hepatitis C, a patient having Hepatitis B, a patient having a human papilloma virus infection, a patient having Chronic Myeloid Leukemia (CML), a patient having chronic phase Philadelphia chromosome (Ph) positive Chronic Myelogenous Leukemia, a patient having non-Hodgkin's lymphoma (NHL), a patient having lymphoma, a patient having bladder cancer, and a patient having renal cancer. Preferably, the patient is a human patient.

The prototype nucleotide and amino acid sequence for IFN alpha is set forth herein as SEQ ID NO:3 and SEQ ID NO:4, respectively (Figure 59A and 59B, respectively). The prototype nucleotide and amino acid sequence for IFN omega is set forth herein as SEQ ID NO:74 and SEQ ID NO:75, respectively (Figures 84A and 84B, respectively). IFN beta comprises a single gene product of approximately 20 kDa, the nucleic acid and amino acid sequence of which are presented herein as SEQ ID NO:5 and SEQ ID NO:6 (Figure 60A and 60B, respectively). The present invention is not limited to the nucleotide and amino acid sequences herein. One of skill in the art will readily appreciate that many variants of IFN alpha exist both naturally and as engineered derivatives. Similarly, IFN beta has been

modified in attempts to achieve a more beneficial therapeutic profile. Examples of modified Type I IFNs are well known in the art (see Table 9), and are described in, for example U.S. Patent No. 6,323,006, in which cysteine-60 is substituted for tyrosine, U. S. Patent Nos. 4,737,462, 4,588,585, 5,545,723, and 6,127,332 where an IFN beta with a substitution of a variety of amino acids is described. Additionally, U.S. Patent Nos. 4,966,843, 5,376,567, 5,795,779 describe IFN alpha-61 and IFN-alpha-76. U.S. Patent Nos .4,748,233 and 4,695,543 describe IFN alpha gx-1, whereas U.S. Patent No. 4,975,276 describes IFN alpha-54. In addition, U.S. Patent Nos. 4,695,623, 4,897,471, 5,661,009, and 5,541,293 all describe a consensus IFN alpha sequence to represent all variants known at the date of filing. While this list of Type I IFNs and variants thereof is in no way meant to be exhaustive, one of skill in the art will readily understand that the present invention encompasses IFN beta and IFN alpha molecules, derivatives, and variants known or to be discovered in the future.

Table 9. Interferon-α Isoforms.

α type	AA characteristic
1a	A^{114}
1b	V^{114}
2a	K^{23}-H^{34}
2b	R^{23}-H^{34}
2c	R^{23}-R^{34}
4a	A^{51}-E^{114}
4b	T^{51}-V^{114}
7a	M^{132}-K^{159}-G^{161}
7b	M^{132}-Q^{159}-R^{161}
7c	T^{132}-K^{159}-G^{161}
8a	V^{98}-L^{99}-C^{100}-D^{101}-R^{161}
8b	S^{98}-C^{99}-V^{100}-M^{101}-R^{161}
8c	S^{98}-C^{99}-V^{100}-M^{101}-$D^{161}\Delta(162\text{-}166)$
10a	S^{8}-L^{89}
10b	T^{8}-I^{89}
14a	F^{152}-Q^{159}-R^{161}
14b	F^{152}-K^{159}-G^{161}
14c	L^{152}-Q^{159}-R^{161}
17a	P^{34}-S^{55}-I^{161}
17b	H^{34}-S^{55}-I^{161}
17c	H^{34}-S^{55}-R^{161}
17d	H^{34}-P^{55}-R^{161}
21a	M^{96}
21b	L^{96}

Methods of expressing IFN in recombinant cells are well known in the art, and is easily accomplished using techniques described in, for example U.S. Patent No. 4,966,843, and in Sambrook et al. (2001, Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press, New York) and Ausubel et al. (1997, Current Protocols in Molecular Biology, Green & Wiley, New York). Assays to determine the biological activity of a Type I IFN modified by the present invention will be well known to the skilled artisan. For example, the assay described in Rubinstein et al., (1981, Journal of Virology 37:755-758) is commonly used to determine the effect of an Type I IFN by measuring the cytopathic effects of viral infection on a population of cells. This method is only one of many known in the art for assaying the biological function of a Type IFN.

C. Factor VIIa

The present invention further encompasses a method for the remodeling and modification of Factor VII. The blood coagulation pathway is a complex reaction comprising many events. An intermediate event in this pathway is Factor VII, a proenzyme that participates in the extrinsic pathway of blood coagulation by converting (upon its activation to Factor VIIa) Factor X to Xa in the presence of tissue factor and calcium ions. Factor Xa in turn then converts prothrombin to thrombin in the presence of Factor Va, calcium ions and phospholipid. The activation of Factor X to Factor Xa is an event shared by both the intrinsic and extrinsic blood coagulation pathways, and therefore, Factor VIIa can be used for the treatment of patients with deficiencies or inhibitors of Factor VIII. There is also evidence to suggest that Factor VIIa may participate in the intrinsic pathway as well therefore increasing the prominence and importance of the role of Factor VII in blood coagulation.

Factor VII is a single-chain glycoprotein with a molecular weight of approximately 50 kDa. In this form, the factor circulates in the blood as an inactive zymogen. Activation of Factor VII to VIIa may be catalyzed by several different plasma proteases, such as Factor XIIa. Activation of Factor VII results in the formation of a heavy chain and a light chain held together by at least one disulfide bond. Further, modified Factor VII molecules that cannot be converted to Factor VIIa have been described, and are useful as anti-coagulation remedies,

such as in the case of blood clots, thrombosis, and the like. Given the importance of Factor VII in the blood coagulation pathway, and its use as a treatment for both increased and decreased levels of coagulation, it follows that a molecule that has a longer biological half-life, increased potency, and in general, a therapeutic profile more similar to wild-type Factor VII as it is synthesized and secreted in the healthy human would be beneficial and useful as a treatment for blood coagulation disorders.

A remodeled Factor VII peptide may be administered to a patient selected from the group consisting of a hemophiliac patient having a bleeding episode, a patient having Hemophilia A, a patient with Hemophilia B, a patient having Hemophilia A, wherein the patient also has antibodies to Factor VIII, a patient having Hemophilia B, wherein the patient also has antibodies to Factor IX, a patient having liver cirrhosis, a cirrhotic patient having an orthotopic liver transplant, a cirrhotic patient having upper gastrointestinal bleeding, a patient having a bone marrow transplant, and a patient having a liver resection. Preferably, the patient is a human patient.

Factor VII has been cloned and sequenced, and the nucleic acid and amino acid sequences are presented herein as SEQ ID NO:7 and SEQ ID NO:8 (Figure 61A and 61B, respectively). The present invention should in no way be construed as limited to the Factor VII nucleic acid and amino acid sequences set forth herein. Variants of Factor VII are described in, for example, U.S. Patent Nos. 4,784,950 and 5,580,560, in which lysine-38, lysine-32, arginine--290, arginine-341, isoleucine-42, tyrosine-278, and tyrosine-332 is replaced by a variety of amino acids. Further, U.S. Patent Nos. 5,861,374, 6,039,944, 5,833,982, 5,788,965, 6,183,743, 5,997,864, and 5,817,788 describe Factor VII variants that are not cleaved to form Factor VIIa. The skilled artisan will recognize that the blood coagulation pathway and the role of Factor VII therein are well known, and therefore many variants, both naturally occurring and engineered, as described above, are included in the present invention.

Methods for the expression and to determine the activity of Factor VII are well known in the art, and are described in, for example, U.S. Patent No. 4,784,950. Briefly, expression of Factor VII, or variants thereof, can be accomplished in a variety of both prokaryotic and eukaryotic systems, including *E. coli*, CHO cells, BHK cells, insect cells using a baculovirus expression system, all of which are well known in the art.

Assays for the activity of a modified Factor VII prepared according to the methods of the present invention can be accomplished using methods well known in the art. As a non-limiting example, Quick et al. (Hemorragic Disease and Thrombosis, 2nd ed., Leat Febiger, Philadelphia, 1966), describes a one-stage clotting assay useful for determining the biological activity of a Factor VII molecule prepared according to the methods of the present invention.

D. Factor IX

The present invention further encompasses a method for remodeling and/or modifying Factor IX. As described above, Factor IX is vital in the blood coagulation cascade. A deficiency of Factor IX in the body characterizes a type of hemophilia (type B). Treatment of this disease is usually limited to intravenous tranfusion of human plasma protein concentrates of Factor IX. However, in addition to the practical disadvantages of time and expense, transfusion of blood concentrates involves the risk of transmission of viral hepatitis, acquired immune deficiency syndrome or thromboembolic diseases to the recipient.

While Factor IX has demonstrated itself as an important and useful compound for therapeutic applications, present methods for the production of Factor IX from recombinant cells (U.S. Patent No. 4,770,999) results in a product with a rather short biological life, an inaccurate glycosylation pattern that could potentially lead to immunogenicity, loss of function, an increased need for both larger and more frequent doses in order to achieve the same effect, and the like.

A remodeled Factor IX peptide may be administered to a patient selected from the group consisting of a hemophiliac patient having a bleeding episode and also having Hemophilia B, a patient having Hemophilia B, a patient having Hemophilia B and having antibodies to Factor IX, a patient having liver cirrhosis, a cirrhotic patient having an orthotopic liver transplant, a cirrhotic patient having upper gastrointestinal bleeding, a patient having a bone marrow transplant, and a patient having a liver resection. A remodeled Factor IX peptide may also be administered to control and/or prevent hemorrhagic episodes in a patient having Hemophilia B, congenital Factor IX deficiency, or Christmas disease. A remodeled Factor IX peptide may also be administered to a patient to control and/or prevent hemorrhagic episodes in the patient during surgery. Preferably, the patient is a human patient.

The nucleic and amino acid sequences of Factor IX is set forth herein as SEQ ID NO:9 and SEQ ID NO:10 (Figure 62A and 62B, respectively). The present invention is in no way limited to the sequences set forth herein. Factor IX variants are well known in the art, as described in, for example, U.S. Patent Nos. 4,770,999, 5,521,070 in which a tyrosine is replaced by an alanine in the first position, U.S. Patent No. 6,037,452, in which Factor XI is linked to an alkylene oxide group, and U.S. Patent No. 6,046,380, in which the DNA encoding Factor IX is modified in at least one splice site. As demonstrated herein, variants of Factor IX are well known in the art, and the present disclosure encompasses those variants known or to be developed or discovered in the future.

Methods for determining the activity of a modified Factor IX prepared according to the methods of the present invention can be carried out using the methods described above, or additionally, using methods well known in the art, such as a one stage activated partial thromboplastin time assay as described in, for example, Biggs (1972, Human Blood Coagulation Haemostasis and Thrombosis (Ed. 1), Oxford, Blackwell, Scientific, pg. 614). Briefly, to assay the biological activity of a Factor IX molecule developed according to the methods of the present invention, the assay can be performed with equal volumes of activated partial thromboplastin reagent, Factor IX deficient plasma isolated from a patient with hemophilia B using sterile phlebotomy techniques well known in the art, and normal pooled plasma as standard, or the sample. In this assay, one unit of activity is defined as that amount present in one milliliter of normal pooled plasma. Further, an assay for biological activity based on the ability of Factor IX to reduce the clotting time of plasma from Factor IX-deficient patients to normal can be performed as described in, for example, Proctor and Rapaport (1961, Amer. J. Clin. Path. 36: 212).

E. FSH

The present invention further includes a method for remodeling and/or modifying FSH. Human reproductive function is controlled in part by a family of heterodimeric human glycoprotein hormones which have a common 92 amino acid glycoprotein alpha subunit, but differ in their hormone-specific beta subunits. The family includes follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), luteinizing hormone (LH), thyrotropin or thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH), and human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG). Human FSH and LH are used

therapeutically to regulate various aspects of metabolism pertinent to reproduction in the human female. For example, FSH partially purified from urine is used clinically to stimulate follicular maturation in anovulatory women with anovulatory syndrome or luteal phase deficiency. Luteinizing hormone (LH) and FSH are used in combination to stimulate the development of ovarian follicles for *in vitro* fertilization. The role of FSH in the reproductive cycle is sufficiently well-known to permit therapeutic use, but difficulties have been encountered due, in part, to the heterogeneity and impurity of the preparation from native sources. This heterogeneity is due to variations in glycosylation pattern.

FSH is a valuable tool in both *in vitro* fertilization and stimulation of fertilization *in vivo*, but as stated above, its clinical efficacy has been hampered by inconsistency in glycosylation of the protein. It therefore seems apparent that a method for remodeling FSH will be of great benefit to the reproductive sciences.

A remodeled FSH peptide may be administered to a patient selected from the group consisting of a patient undergoing intrauterine insemination (IUI), a patient undergoing *in vitro* fertilization (IVF), and an infertile patient. A remodeled FSH peptide may also be administered to induce or increase ovulation in a patient, to stimulate development of an ovarian follicle in a patient, to induce gametogenic follicle growth in a patient, to stimulate, induce or increase follicle development and subsequent ovulation in a patient, or to treat infertility in a patient. Preferably, the patient is a human female patient. A remodeled FSH peptide may also be administered to a patient having a pituitary deficiency or to a patient during puberty. Preferably this patient is a human male patient.

FSH has been cloned and sequenced, the nucleic and amino acid sequences of which are presented herein as SEQ ID NO:11, SEQ ID NO: 12, respectively (alpha subunit) and SEQ ID NO:13 and SEQ ID NO:14, respectively (beta subunit) (Figure 63A, 63B, 63C and 63D, respectively). The skilled artisan will readily appreciate that the present invention is not limited to the sequences depicted herein, as variants of FSH are well known in the art. As a non-limiting example, U.S. Patent No. 5,639,640 describes the beta subunit comprising two different amino acid sequences and U.S. Patent No. 5,338,835 describes a beta subunit comprising an additional amino acid sequence of approximately twenty-seven amino acids derived from the beta subunit of human chorionic gonadotropin. Therefore, the present